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EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION AFFECTING PRIVATE SCHOOLS

The year 1925 was enormously significant in a legislative way as far as private and religious schools in the United States are concerned. The decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Oregon Case is a landmark in the relations of the state towards non-state schools. It confirms an historical precedent which began with colonial days, and which has resulted in the establishment of thousands of educational institutions by private foundations or individuals, and of an entire educational system paralleling the public school system by the Catholic Church. Outside of this most important decision, the legislative trend did not veer away from, in any marked degree, the attitude towards the private school consistently maintained up to this by the various states. This seems to be the most important conclusion resulting from a survey of the educational legislation of the last year.

Charles N. Lischka, Research Specialist of the National Catholic Welfare Conference Bureau of Education, has compiled in his "Private Schools and State Laws" all the legislation enacted by the states on the subject of private schools up to 1925. This monograph is quite generally recognized as the best we have on this important subject. It is merely to supplement and to bring up to date the information contained in this worth-while book that the following summary of educational legislative activities as they affect religious schools has been written. Mr. Lischka will soon supplement his original work by the publication of the exact text of all new laws and judicial decisions of 1925. My purpose is to analyze these laws in order to discover any new

elements which may be contained in them and to point out for our guidance the probable direction which educational legislation will take in the coming years.

There is no need to go over the ground covered by the Supreme Court decision in the Oregon Case. Catholic educators fully realize the tremendous significance of this decision, at least as far as its primary and immediate effects are concerned. Coupled with the reversal by the same court of the Nebraska Language Law, it makes secure forever the existence of the religious school and becomes for us a veritable Magna Charta of educational liberty. The courts have settled our rights as far as mere existence is concerned; they have at the same time settled another controverted point, that of supervision and regulation of private institutions by the state. Both the Oregon and Nebraska decisions state in the clearest possible language the right of the state reasonably to supervise private schools. As far as Catholic educators are concerned, few if any today would question such right. They may differ in their definition of the term "reasonable regulation" and may not agree as to its extension. On all substantial matters involved in state supervision they seem in complete accord, and, what is more significant, prepared to meet honestly the demands of the state.

The groups which were responsible for the passage of the Oregon Law have not as yet reconciled themselves to the verdict of the Supreme Court. This fact, however, may not mean much. It is unthinkable that any future Supreme Court will reverse the present decision. Neither is it possible that public opinion, in our generation at least, shall be changed from its sane attitude on the rights of private schools to accept the monopolistic theories of professional anti-Catholic propagandists. The tactics of these agitators during the coming years will probably be confined to the initiation of irritating legislation in quarters where they are strong numerically, and to a concerted effort to make their interpretation of "reasonable regulation" prevail. It need scarcely be added that regulation for them is equivalent to annihilation. We must be prepared, therefore, to engage in a sort of guerilla warfare all over the country with these misguided enthusiasts. The experience will be trying. Nothing but an extreme patience and a sound evaluation of each of these small moves in its relations

towards the larger issues involved will bring victory. It is especially in the field of state regulation of religious schools that we must be constantly on guard. The movement for regulation has taken some striking and peculiar turns during 1925. It is necessary to keep *au courant* of these legislative trends even if they seem to affect primarily public education alone. Education is education, whether given under public or private auspices. A legislature, over-zealous in legislating for the public school and ignorant of public school needs, may easily pass laws which will become very embarrassing to us as administrators of religious schools. The need of a close scrutiny of all laws affecting curriculum, methods, teacher training, and equipment is, therefore, self-evident. If, as citizens, we are not interested enough in the welfare of public education to keep watch over possible pernicious legislation, then, at least, as Catholics let us not forget that it is impossible, given the complexity of modern American life, to divorce altogether our educational interests from those of the public school.

Coincident with the death of the Sixty-eighth Congress occurred the death of an old and well-known legislative friend—the Sterling-Reed Bill. There were few mourners in either case. The new Congress has already witnessed the introduction of a Department of Education Bill which is strikingly different from its predecessors of every Congress from the Sixty-fifth to the present. The new bill shall probably be called the Reed-Curtis Bill. It has already been introduced by Senator Curtis in the Senate (S. 291) and by Representative Reed in the House. The Legislative Committee of the National Education Association, together with its supporting organizations, has written and endorsed this new measure which asks for a Department of Education with a secretary in the Cabinet and \$1,500,000 annually to support the department when established. The department is to be purely a fact-finding and research department, and in no sense supervisory of education in the states. It is impossible to say at this time whether any other Department of Education bills shall be introduced. The probability is that the present Republican administration will throw overboard, for this session at least, the Department of Education and Relief measure which it has sponsored. If such be the case, the N. E. A. measure will

hold the field alone. Without positive support on the part of the Administration, its chances of success are very small. There is too much public opposition to the increase of federal bureaus and to continued encroachment on the rights of the states by the Federal Government to expect an early passage of the Reed-Curtis Bill. It must be noted, however, that the Reed-Curtis Bill is not, in any exact sense of the word, merely a re-vamping of the Sterling-Reed Bill. It is a part of the old measure, and, in the minds of many educators, a part which can be accepted even by opponents of federal control of education. It is to be noted, too, that this new bill has gained for itself more support than its predecessors ever had the good fortune to obtain. There is small chance that it shall be debated on its merits, much less that it can pass the present Congress.

One state, Indiana, during 1925 attempted to pass a bill abolishing the private school. This bill was defeated. There may be sporadic attempts next year to introduce similar measures in other states. If such bills are introduced, it will not be with the hope of passage or of acceptance by the courts when passed, which is unthinkable, but with the idea of badgering the forces behind the religious school or of compelling them to accept as a compromise measure regulatory legislation of a distasteful kind.

The last Congress passed a Compulsory Attendance Law for the District of Columbia which resembles the general run of attendance laws. It puts in the hands of the Superintendent of Public Schools of the District the right to determine which private schools fulfill the intent of the law as far as compulsory education goes. Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee amended their compulsory education statutes, Ohio raising the "compulsory school age" to 18, Pennsylvania providing for the compulsory education of blind, deaf, and crippled, and Tennessee ordering parents to send children possessing employment certificates to part-time schools.

North Carolina and Rhode Island passed acts on the subject of approval of private schools. North Carolina, by a new law, approves the private school only if it measures up to state requirements for public education and makes regular reports to the State Board. Rhode Island amended its act on private

schools, ordering such schools to register with the State Board and to make yearly reports. With reference to the curriculum, North Carolina, Rhode Island, and California amended their laws, making the elementary religious school curriculum substantially the same as that given in public schools a *sine qua non* of state recognition. The teaching of the English language and the teaching of certain subjects in English are likewise insisted on for recognition. Two states, Indiana and Kansas, passed laws on the teaching of the Constitution. New York passed an act providing that physical training be given in public and private schools. In Indiana a law providing for the supervision of private schools was defeated, as also a bill which, if it had been enacted, would have made the curriculum of public and private schools identical. There is now pending in the extra session of the legislature of Washington a similar measure. This latter type of legislation is utterly vicious and is proposed by organizations of well-known anti-Catholic views. There does not seem to exist, however, on the part of the large majority of the states any strong tendency to imitate such discriminatory legislation.

Comparing, therefore, the legislation of 1925 as it affects the curriculum of the religious school with legislation already existing on this subject, it is evident that no new policies have developed during this year; neither is the supervisory power of the state being extended beyond reasonable limits.

There has been some new legislation relative to teachers. None of it has been *per se* objectionable. Nebraska passed a new law setting out the requirements for a state certificate. A bill requiring certificates of religious school teachers failed of passage in Indiana. There is now pending in Washington a like measure. To those in touch with legislation as it affects teachers in private and public schools, there is apparent a move on the part of certain interests to have passed laws which will discriminate against or render impossible the employment of public school teachers who are Catholics. On the other hand, some of these laws, like the Tennessee measure and a bill pending in Washington, demand simply that all teachers be citizens or have declared their intention of becoming citizens. Suits have been started in Kentucky, Colorado, and West Virginia touching this question of teacher employment. The Kentucky case had to do with nuns as public

school teachers and was dismissed by the complainants. In West Virginia the courts decided that it was unconstitutional to discriminate against a public school teacher on account of his religion. Reports from all over the country reaching the N. C. W. C. Bureau of Education show an unusual amount of discrimination against public school teachers who are Catholics. In many states the situation is bad, so bad in fact that a Catholic teacher cannot find employment. At the present time the matter seems one for local authorities and local public opinion to deal with. Should it assume much larger proportions in the near future, a concerted national drive on our part against such low and dishonorable tactics would have to be made if for no other reason than to maintain our self-respect as citizens.

To those in touch with educational matters, there is no need to point out and emphasize the increased public attention which is now given to the problem of moral and character education. This interest exhibits itself almost daily in noteworthy public utterances, in a truly remarkable development of week-day religious education, and in legislation whose purpose is to make possible Bible-reading in the schools or to provide cooperation between the schools and the churches in the matter of week-day religious education. The whole movement in its religious, educational, and legislative aspects should be thoroughly analyzed by a competent and trained Catholic educator. Until such a survey and scientific evaluation of the religious education movement has been made, it would be very difficult to express an unbiased view of the situation. Such a view is necessary since the future of the Catholic religious school is more intimately bound up with this new movement than many people suspect.

Lischka, in "Private Schools and State Laws," page 155, summarizes the legislative situation as far as Bible-reading is concerned up to 1925. In this year Florida and Idaho passed new laws favoring such reading, and Delaware amended its old law. Four states, Indiana, Iowa, Nebraska, and West Virginia, refused to pass obligatory Bible laws, although Indiana allows by law credits for Bible study. Illinois defeated a constitutional amendment, the Governor of Ohio vetoed a bill which passed the state legislature, and in the State of Washington a Bible bill has been defeated. The Tennessee State Board, on motion of the

Governor, placed the Bible on its list of elective subjects. What action Oregon and Oklahoma took is not known, as their session laws are not available at this writing.

Two important cases regarding Bible-reading have been argued before the courts of Colorado and South Dakota. The South Dakota decision upheld the action of the School Board of Faith which had expelled from school a group of Catholic children who refused to attend Bible-reading. The South Dakota decision, read in the light of previously given decisions favorable to Bible-reading in Georgia, Kentucky, Maine, and Massachusetts (see Lischka, "Private Schools and State Laws," p. 128 *et seq.*), cannot but mark an important starting point in any stand we are obliged to take on the question of Bible-reading in the public school.

The problem of week-day religious education is much more vital as far as Catholic schools are concerned than the question of Bible-reading. Bible-reading in the school, at its best, can but be looked upon as a very weak educational substitute for the training in religion and character which the school should give. Not so the organized and efficiently manned Week-Day Religious School. Its possibilities are beyond question, and if this movement should develop along the lines laid down by its leaders, it shall unquestionably become a very strong factor in the religious life of the American people. While we may look on it, out of the experience of nearly one hundred years of parish school education, as a wholly inadequate experiment in religious training, yet we must not underestimate its work nor blind ourselves to the consequences of a general recognition of the fact that religion must go into the school, somewhere, somehow.

During 1925 Oregon joined with Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota, which already possessed enabling acts, in allowing public school authorities to dismiss children at stated periods for the purpose of attending the Week-Day Religious School. New York, Colorado, California, and Pennsylvania defeated similar bills, and the Governor of Indiana vetoed a measure passed by the legislature. New York passed an act providing for the teaching of the Ten Commandments. An important judicial decision was rendered by the Supreme Court of New York which, despite a favorable ruling of the Commissioner

of Education, restrained the Mount Vernon School Board from permitting children to leave public schools during school hours to attend religious instruction.

To summarize: (1) The Oregon decision makes secure the right of the religious school to exist. This is a most important gain, for it renders impossible anything like a nationalization of education in the United States. (2) There is small likelihood of a Department of Education bill passing Congress. (3) The regulation of private schools by state laws has followed a perfectly normal course and does not exhibit any new factor or revolutionary change of policy. (4) With reference to the regulation of public schools by state legislation, an increasing amount of interference with the curriculum is manifesting itself. The Tennessee Evolution Law is an example to what lengths state legislatures are prepared to go in dictating the educational policy of their schools. It is a movement which we must watch closely. (5) In the special field of religious education, both Bible-reading and the formal Week-Day Religious School have made legislative advances, particularly the latter. To my mind this sudden and widespread development of legislative interest in religious education is one of the most noteworthy aspects of the educational laws of the last three years. Its full meaning escapes the casual observer. There are those, however, who behold in it the most important trend of modern educational legislation. We may not agree as to what ultimately shall come of this movement as far as parochial religious schools are concerned. No Catholic educator, however, can afford to close his eyes to the great possibilities which seem to lie embedded in the heart of this new movement of the Protestant churches to supply religious education to the millions of children now attending public schools.

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STORY TELLING IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES

"The teacher who can do justice to a story approaches in power the rhapsodist. The pupils will not only listen to her, but will hang breathless upon her every word as upon a rhapsodist's. In this way the teacher will not only win their interest but will infuse into their souls sympathy with what is great and noble, and an enthusiastic devotion to high ideals."—Otto Willman.

Since the beginning of the world the story has been the greatest of educational factors, and the story teller the greatest of educators. From the day of the creation of man, down through the ages he has preserved the fairy tale and fable, the folk-lore and legend, the history, and oftentimes the religion of the human race. Tradition is a rich storehouse of knowledge, but the story teller is the maker of tradition; and it is to him, in the last analysis, that we are indebted for much of the fact and fancy in this old world of ours.

The story tellers of the past, moreover, were not only narrators of happenings and recounters of tales; they were also idealists. In their songs and stories, minstrel and minnesinger, bard and gleeman glorified virtue and taught that right triumphs eventually over wrong. Their tales of the heroic and the noble fired men to achievement, and, in time, came to be the inspiration of some of the greatest deeds of history.

Alexander the Great attributed his desire for conquest to the influence of the songs of the wandering bard, Homer. When Tara was in its golden day of glory there was no more powerful man in all of Ireland than the gleeman, Brian of Fermanagh; and the Crusades, those mighty undertakings of mediaeval Christianity that contributed so much to the temporal and spiritual betterment of Europe, might never have been organized, had it not been for the stories of the desecration of the Holy Land told by Peter the Hermit. How much of character has been molded, how much of history has been made, by the power and the skill of the story teller!

Amid the multiform activities and distractions of the present day, the influence of the story remains unchanged. The story is told from the pulpit, from the oratorical platform, in the

club, in the settlement house, and in the home; but the greatest opportunities for its use are found in the schoolroom.

The teacher who persuades to better things by means of the story, follows the method used by Christ, our Divine Master, the teacher's Model *par excellence*, who, wishing to bring home a lesson to the simple folk of Judea, "spoke to the multitudes, in parables, and without parables He did not speak to them" (St. Matthew, xiii, 34). Descending to a lower plane, we may cite the example of Abraham Lincoln, who knew the way to the heart of a crowd; he had at his command a seemingly unlimited supply of anecdotes and stories which he used as illustrations in his public speeches, ". . . because," he said, "the people understand when I tell them a story."

Similarly, the classroom teacher who has developed skill in story telling finds herself possessed of a potent and effective means of imparting information on all subjects in the school curriculum, and of establishing high and noble ideals of right conduct. Among the school subjects in which the story is of value the following may be enumerated:

1. *Religion*.—In the teaching of religion, a story is often found valuable in fixing a sacred truth in the mind and heart of a child, when a careful and detailed explanation has failed to make an impression.

2. *English*.—The story increases the pupil's power of expression. The pupil unconsciously incorporates the story teller's vocabulary into his own, imitates her enunciation and pronunciation, and strives to modulate his voice in order to give it somewhat of the pleasing effect of hers.

3. *Literature*.—Stories from the lives and works of great authors foster a love of the great master minds, and an interest in their works, that will cause the pupils to look forward with genuine pleasure to the reading of the masterpieces of literature.

4. *Reading*.—Primary pupils, and even those of the middle and upper grades, who have heard many loved stories well told by their teachers, bring to the reading period a background of enriched experience that makes the subject matter and the vocabulary of the text story full of meaning to them. They follow the thread of the narrative with that keen interest that bespeaks the correct reading attitude and that is so powerful a factor in developing the reading habits and skills essential to their grade.

5. *History and Biography*.—Stories of national achievement and of the lives of great leaders and inventors prepare the younger pupils for a more serious study of history and biography; and, when these studies have been begun, such stories vivify dry facts and give to the children an understanding of what history really means.

6. *Geography and Travel*.—Stories of other countries, of their home and social life, their occupations and industries, serve to make these lands real and near to the child, and to stimulate his interest in foreign regions and activities.

The disciplinary value of the story is recognized in the classroom when it breaks down the barrier of restraint between teacher and pupils and establishes friendly relations; when it proves helpful in winning over the untractable and rough element in the class, and when it functions as an effective means of forming habits of attention and concentration.

The greatest opportunity of the story in the classroom, however, is that of molding character and establishing ideals. Human interest stories of great heroes, whether these heroes be kings or peasants, saints honored by the world or those whose lives are hidden, enlarge the child's love for the noble, the good, the true, stimulate him to deeds of courage, kindness, and generosity, and urge him on to perseverance in the face of obstacles. For, as Janet Erskine Stuart says, "To find a character like one's own which has fought the same fight and has been crowned, is an encouragement which obtains great victories."

The story derives its power for good from the pleasure and joy which it affords. A story should not, however, be told in the school room merely to pass the time agreeably. "Every tale selected must contribute something definite toward the mental, moral, or spiritual growth of the child, just as each pigment chosen by an artist must blend into the picture to help to make a beautiful and a perfect whole."¹ We come, then, to the task of selecting appropriate stories. The basis of selection should be a consideration of the children for whom the story is intended; their general characteristics, their stage of development, their interests, and the environment in which they live. Then, too, the teacher should choose the story that will best accomplish the purpose she has in mind, having a regard, meanwhile, for

¹Cather, "Educating by Story Telling," p. 9. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1920.

the claims of good literature. The most important of these elements to be considered is the interest of the story for the class.

The life of the elementary school child may be divided into four periods, each indicative of a different stage of development, and each having its peculiar story interests. There are no hard and fast lines between these periods, as frequently the mental and chronological ages of children do not correspond, and the story interests of one period overlap and often extend through the others. The interests mentioned below are simply those that predominate during the period to which they are assigned. These periods may be denoted as:

1. The period of realism, which, incident to children from about three to six years of age, and extending generally through the kindergarten and the first grade, is the time when the child is interested in familiar objects and experiences; consequently, he delights in rhymes, jingles, and stories of the mother, the father, of children of his own age, and of well-known animals.

Mother Goose rhymes, such stories as "The Gingerbread Boy," "Little Red Riding Hood," "The Tale of Peter Rabbit," and stories relating to home and child life find place in the interests of the child at this stage. Among religious stories are those of the Holy Infant, the Divine Child and His Blessed Mother, simple incidents from the lives of child saints, and stories illustrating our Lord's personal love for little children.

2. The period of imagination, which, found in children from six to eight years of age, and extending through the second and third grades, is the time when the child loves to pretend and to make believe. Fairy tales and fables, folk-lore and simple legends, appeal to his imagination and delight his fancy. Of these stories, the most suitable and childlike should be selected. Stories from the old Testament, those of the boyhood of Christ and of the miracles He performed during His public life, as well as stories of child saints, hold the attention of the pupil during this period.

3. The period of hero-worship, which, common to children from eight to twelve years of age, and extending through the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, is the time when the child hungers for tales of adventure, for stories of the heroic. At this time the child revels in some of the stories of King Arthur and his knights, of Alfred the Great, of Beowulf, De Soto, William Tell, Daniel Boone, Robinson Crusoe, Hiawatha and other Indian stories, and the numberless tales of fact and fancy that

idealize physical prowess, ingenuity, and courage. Hero stories from the Old Testament, accounts of the martyrs, and of great missionaries, find a welcome in the interest of the child during this period of hero-worshipping.

4. The period of romance and chivalry, which, belonging to children from the age of twelve into the teens, and extending through the seventh and eighth grades into the high school, is the time of early adolescence, when the child awakens to a consciousness of sentiment. During this period the boy and girl delight in such stories as those of Lancelot and Elaine, Geraint and Enid, *The Story of Parsifal*, *Evangeline*, tales from the *Iliad*, the *Odyssey* and the *Nibelungenlied*. They enjoy, too, stories from the lives of such saints as St. Joan of Arc, St. Therese of Lisieux, St. Francis of Assisi, St. Philip Neri, and St. John the Evangelist.

Before they can be used for oral delivery, many stories need to be adapted; some need expansion, but the majority need condensation. In either case, the teacher should first study well the original. When reducing a long story, she should consider, not so much what may be eliminated, but what must be included in order to preserve the plot. Descriptions, nonessential characters, and irrelevant incidents may be omitted, without disturbing the logical sequence of events necessary to the plot. In order to enlarge a story, the teacher needs to have recourse to a fertile imagination.

The teacher, having selected a story suitable to her purpose and having adapted it for telling, must now prepare herself to tell it. Those especially gifted in story telling do not require as much preparation as their less fortunate neighbors, but every story teller needs some preparation. To lack of preparation more than to any other cause is due failure in story telling.

We cannot give to others what we, ourselves, do not possess. The story teller, therefore, must possess the story, make it his own, know it incident by incident, appreciate it, and love it. "To get the story, relax your imagination and sympathy, and let them go out for it. Sit down with it and read and reread it, or listen to it, and brood upon it until you absorb its life; until you think and feel and move in its being. Conjure up to yourself its scenes and people and happenings."² An excellent method

² Angela M. Keyes, "Stories and Story Telling," p. 17. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1915.

of testing one's preparation of the story is to tell the story aloud to oneself; by this method defects are readily recognized.

In selecting, adapting, preparing, and telling the story the teacher must remember that the oral story as well as the written short story is based upon the following plan:

1. The Introduction.
2. The Body of the Story.
3. The Conclusion.

In telling the story the teacher should begin with the air of one having something interesting to say, as it is necessary to win attention immediately. For this reason, the introduction should be direct and short, and, generally, action should begin at once. In the introduction the story teller may: (a) create a background for the story, (b) state the time, the place, and the characters; (c) introduce the hero, or (d) appeal to the feelings or to the physical senses. The following may serve to illustrate the different introductions:

(a) During the days of the Crusades a village stood in the heart of a little valley. The people living there were very poor, but so good and gentle that, despite their poverty, they were happier than many of the great folk of the realm. Their rude black huts, each with its tiny garden plot and bit of meadow where they pastured their goats, satisfied them, and they lived so simply and healthfully that there were men over a hundred years of age among them.

(b) There once lived a shoemaker and his wife who were very poor, and who had to work hard to get money enough for food and clothes. The shoemaker sat all day at his bench, sewing and hammering, while his wife worked just as hard in her house.

(c) Long years ago, in the sunny land of France, there lived a little maid named Joan. Now Joan was a strong, healthy little girl, and she loved to run and play just as children should; but she also loved to slip away alone and sit and dream about wonderful things.

(d) The night was dark and cold. The chill winter wind whistled around the corners of the log cabin and found its way through the chinks into the bare room within. Near the few

remaining coals in the fireplace, a little golden-haired boy sat shivering on a log.

The body of the story is like a chain, each link composed of an incident essential to the plot. These incidents lead up to the climax, and each should be so interesting to the audience, that should the teacher pause after one of them, the children will immediately ask, "What comes next?"

The climax is the most important point in the story, and upon it depends the real influential value. If the teacher intends to teach an ethical, a moral, or a religious lesson, she will impress it best by a skillful handling of the climax. Moralizing, at this point, spoils the story for most children. "If a story is worth telling, moralizing is not necessary," Henry Van Dyke has very aptly remarked.

The conclusion of the story should be short. Its purpose is simply to leave the mind of the listener with a satisfied feeling.

When a story is told with the purpose of imparting information on a school subject, the teacher may secure a return from the pupils through oral or written reproduction and discussion, or through dramatization; but when a story is used to set up a standard of right conduct, it generally produces fruit more effectively and surely when its thought-seeds are allowed to germinate silently in the mind of the pupil. It is well, therefore, to allow a pause of two or three minutes after the completion of such a story in order that the children may have time to think and to make the application that appeals to them.

Such, in brief, is the story. It remains now to mention a few qualities of the successful narrator.

The story-teller should endeavor to acquire a rich vocabulary and when speaking, to adapt her language to the development of her class. She should use pure diction, being careful to pronounce correctly and to enunciate distinctly. She should cultivate a melodious voice, and train it to be responsive to the thought it expresses. The beginner usually speaks too loud and too rapidly. The teacher's tone and pace should be regulated by the spirit of the story; pauses, whispered or slowly spoken words are, when appropriate, very effective.

The manner of the story-teller should be easy and natural, and her personality should be pleasing. She should face all the

children, look into their eyes, and make each feel that the story is for him. When telling a story the teacher should avoid such mannerisms as fingering with a pencil or a book; her hands should be moved only to make gestures.

Above all, the teacher should know and love the story and know and love her class. She should enter into the feelings of each of the characters, and, in her imagination, she should visualize each scene she describes. With a greater intensity should she love the members of her class and know their needs and interests, for, because of this love, will she be enabled to make her story-telling a real force for good, "a ladder mounting upward unto God."⁸

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⁸ Brother Leo, "Teaching the Drama and the Essay," p. 81. New York: Schwartz, Kirwin and Fauss, 1921.

SOME RESULTS OF REMEDIAL INSTRUCTION FOLLOWING THE USE OF DIAGNOSTIC ARITHMETIC TESTS

It is quite generally agreed by educational authorities that the major emphasis in the use of tests and measurements should be placed upon their value as instruments to aid in the improvement of instruction. One phase of the instructional uses of tests that is receiving a great deal of attention at the present time is their administration for purposes of diagnosis. The term "diagnostic" test implies its purpose; i.e., to assist in the analysis of some part of the subject-matter field, or of some phase of teaching, with a view of determining disabilities and of applying appropriate remedial measures. The use of diagnostic tests in the elementary school subjects has become quite common. Numerous articles in books and in current educational literature dealing with the employment of such tests and the subsequent remedial teaching are available. However, few of these articles contain any detailed reference to the measurement of the results effected by the specifically directed training which followed the use of the diagnostic tests.

It is the purpose of this paper to present data collected from a program of remedial instruction in the fundamentals of arithmetic formulated as a result of the analysis of individual and class errors, and, by means of a comparison with the returns from a control school, to show the advantage gained by the determination and analysis of disabilities previous to a period of drill for the correction of errors and for the engendering of certain specific abilities.

The tests used in this project were the Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals, Forms I and II. While these tests undoubtedly have considerable diagnostic value, they are open to several rather serious objections as instruments for complete diagnosis in this particular field. Their function is to measure power and accuracy only; the time consumed in the various fundamental operations is not taken into account. Speed is certainly a very important factor in this phase of arithmetical ability, and its neglect forms a limitation to the use of these tests as entirely adequate means for diagnosis. There are several types of fundamental operations that are not included in both forms of the

Woody-McCall Tests. Form I does not contain examples in long division, addition of fractions, division of decimals, and other important types. Then again, there are so few examples of each type that a thoroughly satisfactory diagnosis is impossible. However, in selecting these tests, it was assumed that they do measure some very important types of ability in the fundamentals operations, and they were applied with the intention of discovering the class and individual weaknesses which were operative in detracting from perfect accuracy in the performances elicited by the types of examples represented in the tests. Form I consists of thirty-five examples and Form II of thirty-four. The time allowance is twenty minutes. In the present case this proved sufficient for the pupils of the seventh grades to attempt all of the examples; it was too short for almost half of the sixth grade pupils to attempt all of the examples in Form I.

In April, 1925, Form I was given to twenty-six pupils in the seventh grade and twenty-five pupils in the sixth grade of two neighboring schools. The previous administration of Intelligence Test showed that the pupils of the two grades in both schools had about the same average mental ability. All of the pupils had had considerable practice in taking various kinds of tests. The writer administered and corrected all of the tests.

In recording the results from the experimental school a slightly modified form of the record sheet supplied with the tests was used. The examples missed in the first testing are marked with a cross in the upper portion of the square; after the second testing the scores were inserted and the failures in the different types of problems indicated in the lower half of the squares. Table I shows the number of pupils who failed on each of the thirty-five examples. The entire class and the individual records were thus available in a compact and convenient form. In collecting the returns from the control school only the individual scores and medians were noted. These were given to the teachers; no information was obtained concerning the types of examples missed or the frequency of any particular error. The teacher merely ascertained that a number of pupils, or, perhaps, the class as a whole, was below standard in ability to perform some of the fundamental operations.

With the assistance of the class teachers the writer classified and analyzed the errors of the experimental grades. In most cases the examples were worked on the paper just below the printed statement and from the solution thus recorded an endeavor was made to learn the methods of work and the sources of errors. When it was impossible to determine the cause of the error from a study of the written solution the individual pupil was interrogated and the specific difficulty located. Several of the pupils found the space provided on the front of the page to be insufficient for the solution, and following the printed directions, copied the example on the back of the page. This plan did not always prove satisfactory, as occasionally a mistake was made in copying the figures of the exercise.

Pupil No. 4 made a perfect score; for him the test possessed no diagnostic value. The scores of several of the other children were so high that very little was discernible concerning their particular weaknesses in the fundamentals. It is quite possible that other types of examples would constitute occasions of error for them. Pupil No. 5 is the weakest member of the class, and evidently requires very definite types of remedial instruction.

TABLE I
EXAMPLES MISSED—EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL—GRADE VII

Example No.	Frequency	Example No.	Frequency
1	0	19	8
2	0	20	2
3	1	21	13
4	0	22	4
5	1	23	3
6	1	24	4
7	5	25	10
8	3	26	10
9	0	27	8
10	5	28	13
11	1	29	7
12	1	30	14
13	1	31	11
14	2	32	9
15	4	33	17
16	2	34	16
17	6	35	13
18	4		

CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS

Types of errors	Grades . . .	Frequency	
		VI	VII
<i>A—Integers</i>			
I. Addition:			
1. Mistakes in combinations		18	17
2. Neglecting to carry		5	8
3. Carrying wrong number		7	5
4. Skipping figures in column		4	3
II. Subtraction:			
1. Mistakes in combinations		6	2
2. Mistakes in borrowing		8	4
3. Left-hand figure neglected	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 398 \\ 178 \\ \hline 15 \end{array} \right.$	3	0
III. Multiplication:			
1. Errors in tables		16	15
2. Misplacing right-hand figure in partial product		2	3
3. Carrying wrong number		8	6
4. Failure to use all of the figures in the multiplier		5	16
IV. Division:			
1. Error in recording remainder		8	1
2. Using same figure in dividend twice		2	0
3. Error in tables		2	2
<i>B—Fractions</i>			
I. Failure to reduce to lowest terms		6	7
II. Subtraction:			
1. Inability to subtract mixed number from an integer		8	4
2. Inability to subtract integer from a mixed number		6	5
3. Failure to write denominator of remainder ($2\frac{3}{4} - 1 = \frac{11}{4}$ — $\frac{4}{4} = 7$ Ans.)		3	2
III. Multiplication:			
1. Adding denominators		2	0
2. Inability to multiply mixed number by integer		7	8
3. Inability to multiply integer by fraction		5	2
4. Inverting multiplier		1	4
5. Inability to interpret "of" ($\frac{1}{4}$ of 128)		7	5
IV. Division:			
1. Inability to divide fraction by integer		2	4
2. Failure to invert divisor		15	6
3. Inverting dividend		1	1
4. Inverting both dividend and divisor		1	0
<i>C—Decimals</i>			
I. Addition:			
1. Failure to point off in sum		8	6
2. Misplacing decimal point in sum		4	5
3. Inability to add mixed decimals when example is presented horizontally		19	12

CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS—*Continued*

Types of errors	Frequency		
	Grades....	VI	VII
II. Subtraction:			
1. Inability to subtract when the subtrahend contains more decimal places than the minuend.....		12	5
2. Failure to point off in remainder.....		2	0
3. Confusing minuend and subtrahend.....		10	4
III. Multiplication:			
1. Neglecting to point off in product.....		12	9
2. Misplacing decimal point in product.....		10	5
<i>D—Compound Numbers</i>			
I. Division:			
1. Errors in tables.....		4	7
2. Inability to divide.....		19	10
<i>E—Miscellaneous</i>			
1. Reading errors	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Add} \\ \begin{array}{r} 17 \\ 2 \\ \hline 15 \end{array} \end{array} \right\}$		
		6	2
2. Confusing signs.....		4	5

A glance at the record sheet for grade seven of the experimental school, Table I, reveals the fact that example 33 proved the most difficult for these pupils. This is the example: 9) 69 lb. 9 oz. The teachers of this class have very probably not emphasized compound numbers in their instruction; this class needs a thorough drill upon that particular phase of arithmetic. Such types as example 34 (.0963 $\frac{1}{8}$ multiplied by .084) and 28 (long column addition of decimals) also require special emphasis in the remedial teaching. Example 30 is of the same type as example 34 except that the numbers are integers instead of decimals. Such types as examples 4, 6, 9, etc., need little, if any, stress in the drill work.

When the types of errors and their frequencies had been listed, a record for her grade was given to the teacher of grade VI. The "Error Sheet" given below is very similar to the one with which she was provided. In listing the errors there was some overlapping as often more than one type of error was found in a single example.

At a conference with the teacher of the seventh grade, the writer undertook to make an individual analysis of the errors of each member of the class as well as a general classification of class errors. These were tabulated on the "error sheet" in about the following manner:

<i>Errors</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Pupil No.</i>
Failure to invert divisor	6	1, 5, 11, 12, 19, 21
Inverting the multiplier, etc.	4	8, 11, 19, 25

This listing made it easy to group the children for drill upon common difficulties. Later on the teacher of this class made an individual error record for each of her pupils. It took somewhat the following form:

<i>Pupil No.</i>	<i>Errors</i>
1	A-III-1; B-III-5; B-IV-2; D-I-2

A, III, 1, etc., refer to the letters and number on the error sheet. Thus the first error of Pupil 1 is a mistake in the combinations in addition of integers; his second difficulty is inability to interpret "of" in multiplication of fractions. This latter procedure on the part of the seventh grade teacher entailed a considerable expenditure of time and labor, but it was more than compensated for by the gratifying results which she obtained.

With these three diagnostic results at hand, i.e., the class record, the error sheet, and the individual error list, the seventh grade teacher proceeded to plan the remedial instruction for her class. It was agreed that all of the classes, both in the experimental and in the control school, should spend ten minutes of the arithmetic period upon drill in the fundamentals in integers, fractions, decimals, and compound numbers. The types of examples included in Form I of the Woody-McCall Scales formed the basis of most of the drill work. The teachers in the control school having nothing to guide them except the individual scores and the class medians, were forced to proceed in a rather unsatisfactory manner. Their drill was scattered more or less evenly over the entire field of fundamentals as the parts needing special emphasis for their particular classes were unknown.

The sixth grade teacher in the experimental school dwelt chiefly upon class errors in her remedial teaching. The types of examples involving the most numerous errors received the greater stress in the drill. The various types of class errors

were studied and remedial instruction planned for each type. The class as a whole was made acquainted with its most characteristic disabilities and urged to overcome them. Individual drill was incidental rather than consciously directed. Some of the pupils in this grade were very probably wasting time during parts of the drill period, for it seems scarcely possible that all of the members of the class required the same amount of practice upon the different types of examples.

In addition to the above procedure, the teacher of the seventh grade made a conscious effort to have her drill work as individualistic as possible. She kept constantly in mind the deficiencies of the class as a whole, group difficulties, and also the specific disabilities of individual pupils. The pupil himself, as well as the class and the group, was made aware of his own weaknesses and was encouraged to make earnest efforts to eradicate his particular types of error. Each day's drill was thus immediately motivated and definitely directed. Such pupils as No. 3 and No. 4 were not required to spend the entire time each day in drill. After the first few minutes of class work they were excused and given some other task to perform. Group drill then occupied the next part of the period, and as a member of a group became proficient in a certain type of ability, he was dismissed from the group. Later, as group errors began to disappear, more time was devoted to individual instruction. Every few days very short informal tests were given covering the types of work which had been stressed in the preceding drills. The pupils were told the returns from these tests, and all showed great interest and enthusiasm in striving to make better scores on each succeeding test. The diminution of errors was frequently noted, and as any special type of error disappeared, the emphasis in drill was shifted to another prevalent type.

At the end of six weeks Form II of the Woody-McCall Scales was given to the four classes. This form of the test contains certain types of examples not found in the first form. Some of these examples such as $9) \underline{0}$ and $.003).\underline{0936}$, are types in which errors quite commonly occur. These and other new types appearing in Form II were not specifically used in the drill work. Nevertheless, in a great majority of cases, especially in Grade VII of the experimental school, the scores for Form II show great gains over the scores for Form I. There may be

something of a transfer effect here, as most of these pupils displayed the ability to solve correctly not only the types of examples accentuated in the training period, but also those of other but rather similar types. The returns from this second testing program are given below. The gains in the experimental school are too evident to require comment. As all four of the classes were given the same amount of time each day for drill, it may safely be assumed that the difference in the results is due, at least largely, to the difference of the technique in the procedure employed by the various teachers.

TABLE II
INDIVIDUAL SCORES AND CLASS MEDIANs

School.....	Experimental				Control			
Grade.....	VI		VII		VI		VII	
Form.....	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II
<i>Pupil No.</i>								
1.....	32	32	31	34	30	31	27	28
2.....	29	31	27	33	24	25	27	28
3.....	28	29	34	34	24	24	26	26
4.....	28	31	35	34	32	30	34	32
5.....	29	30	16	31	23	26	28	32
6.....	29	33	23	32	23	25	29	26
7.....	27	29	24	32	25	25	26	30
8.....	28	29	23	33	27	28	28	33
9.....	28	29	25	32	11	14	28	29
10.....	26	33	27	33	29	24	24	27
11.....	27	29	24	25	27	27	25	31
12.....	25	31	21	27	27	27	28	30
13.....	25	31	32	34	25	26	21	23
14.....	24	30	33	34	24	24	32	32
15.....	25	29	34	34	30	30	28	26
16.....	26	28	24	33	30	29	27	31
17.....	24	26	27	34	28	29	30	31
18.....	23	28	27	34	30	32	21	24
19.....	25	28	27	32	33	33	30	31
20.....	25	29	33	34	25	29	32	32
21.....	22	23	27	34	28	28	23	21
22.....	22	27	34	34	22	22	32	32
23.....	22	23	25	28	26	27	31	29
24.....	20	27	28	33	27	30	28	31
25.....	19	20	28	32	24	24	25	30
26.....			23	28			26	23
Medians.....	25.9	29.5	27.5	33.6	26.0	27.7	28.2	30.2

It is interesting to note that the teachers in the experimental school report a decided gain in speed in performing the fundamental operations. Although no effort was made to time each pupil's performance in any very exact manner, the teachers of this school had been requested to notice about how much time was consumed by each pupil in both testing periods. The average number of minutes used by the seventh grade in the second testing was very considerably less than that for the first.

The results from the second testing were tabulated in somewhat the same manner as those for the experimental seventh grade and concentrated drill was continued upon the types of examples still exhibiting disabilities. The use of both forms of the Woody-McCall Scales preceding a drill period would constitute a much more satisfactory diagnostic instrument than either form used alone. A very helpful procedure for a class weak in the fundamentals would be to give a series of diagnostic tests embodying all types of fundamental operations and testing for speed as well as for power. These tests might be applied one after another, and by diagnosis and the application of appropriate remedial measures, the class and the individual disabilities might be gradually eliminated.

SISTER M. KATHLEEN, O.S.F.

A COMMUNITY HEALTH DEMONSTRATION

Health is a civic obligation—a community as well as an individual concern. Yet, the history of the health movement in this country indicates that, of all factors contributing to the common welfare, this has been given least attention. Too often it has been an issue to be toyed with by law-makers and pedagogues, but not sufficiently engaging to call for the concerted action of all serious-minded citizens, except in times of epidemic or misfortune. Public Health officials have worked alone in the field of preventive medicine. Is it any wonder, then, that our morbidity rates are so high, that six foreign countries have a lower infant mortality rate than the United States, or that, in the matter of maternal mortality, our position is still less enviable, since we rank sixteenth in a group of seventeen countries? The war, however, had a paradoxical effect on child life, and the health of the child assumed new importance. A much needed national awakening is evidenced in child welfare campaigns, in the scientific study of the pre-school child, in the establishment of health education work in the schools and in community health demonstrations which socialize individual effort and unify all phases of community health work.

Of all the pro-health movements the community demonstration is most significant because it confines itself neither to one age group nor one phase of health work. It is for all the members of a community, being conducted by and not on the local people. It bridges the gap between scientific information and practice by bringing the subject matter of health education right down to the people, showing them in their own terms what scientific medicine means, what the health movements are and how the habit of health can be cultivated. Such a community undertaking is now being carried on in Syracuse and, because of the fact that thirteen parochial schools with an enrollment of about 8,000 children are an integral part of the demonstration, the results will be of interest to Catholic school people. The Syracuse Demonstration has been made possible through the Milbank Memorial Fund of New York City which directs its philanthropy "at the improvement in the general level of public health and public welfare through translation into practical use-

fulness of knowledge sustained by scientific research." The aim is to show by cooperation with this, as a typical urban community, that though the expansion of health undertakings already in operation there, as well as by the inauguration of intensive application of new health measures, the extent of sickness can be materially diminished and mortality rates substantially reduced. Also to discover whether or not such practical results can be achieved in a relatively short period of time and at a per capita cost which the community is willing to bear after the demonstration has proved the efficiency of its program.

Such forms of public health work as maternity care, infancy, pre-school and child hygiene, an anti-tuberculosis campaign, control of communicable diseases, social, mental and industrial hygiene, sanitation and food inspection are included in the demonstration. Members of the local health department carry on the program with the staff of the demonstration and they have rallied to their support such community organizations as The Onondaga Health Association, The Health Service of the Department of Public Instruction, The Visiting Nurse Association, The Knights of Columbus and other fraternal orders. A special effort is being made to educate the adult population as well as the children through news items, editorials, advertisements, photographs and cartoons in the daily press. Motion pictures, lectures, educational courses in the schools, exhibits, parades, circulars, posters and many other devices are also used for their instruction. The cooperation of local life insurance companies and commercial and industrial organizations has been most effective in the adult health education program. Through these channels a total of 51,000 booklets dealing with personal health information, presented in a popular form, and outlining the purposes and services of the demonstration, was distributed during 1924 to families in the city. Recently three agents of one of the companies received public recognition for furthering the work of the demonstration. One had influenced a total of 63 pre-school children to be immunized from diphtheria; a second effected the immunization of thirty children and made a complete survey of crippled children in his district; the third had also been active in immunization work and had urged the people in his territory to special study of the health literature distributed by his company.

The writer had occasion, recently, at the conclusion of a series of lectures given as a part of the progressive health program of the Department of Education of the N. C. W. C., to observe the school health program which is, without doubt, one of the most worthwhile phases of the demonstration. The schools, both public and parochial, have long enjoyed a program of medical supervision, but through the demonstration funds it was possible to extend and intensify this type of school health work. That of the public schools is directed by the Board of Education, while the Board of Health supervises the work in parochial schools. The situation found in Syracuse furnishes an excellent solution of the ubiquitous problem in Catholic education circles, "How can we have medical supervision when the program in the local public schools is under the Board of Education, which says funds appropriated for public education cannot be diverted to sectarian use?"

During the past year \$33,872 was appropriated for the health supervision of 21,885 public school pupils and \$6,852 for about 8,000 pupils in our schools. The present plan of health supervision calls for a complete physical examination of healthy children three times during the eight years' course. Where defects are found, the children are examined yearly, and in many cases more often. In the public schools nine school physicians devote about one and a half hours each day to this work. One full-time physician, working for the demonstration, conducts special examinations of selected children, assists in the survey of pupils afflicted with goiter, supervises Schick testing and immunization against diphtheria, and assists in carrying out the health program of the open-air schools. The eighteen school-nurses, twelve of whom are employed by the Board of Education and six by the Demonstration, inspect all pupils one each week for signs of contagious disease. They conduct the weighing and measuring program and assist in selecting the children who attend the five open-air schools, the sight conservation classes, the nutrition classes, the classes for stutterers and children having other speech defects and those in the three opportunity classes conducted for children mentally retarded. They also make personal contacts with pupils and their parents where this is necessary to secure correction of defects. All underweight

children are reweighed at frequent intervals and receive milk and crackers daily through the courtesy of a cooperating volunteer agency. For children whose parents cannot afford treatment two dental clinics are conducted. Two dentists employed by the Board of Education devote five hours each day to this work. Three dental hygienists clean and chart the teeth and give instruction in their care. A supervisor of health education outlines and supervises the health instruction program and organizes special nutrition classes and health clubs. She also arranges an adult health education program which is carried out in the schools and in the homes.

Although planned on a smaller scale, the health program of the parochial schools is similar to that outlined above. The work is handled by a director of medical supervision and three part-time assistants. A supervisor and eleven other nurses carry on the program of inspection and follow-up, so that nearly every school has its own nurse. The teeth of the parochial school children are cared for by a full-time dental hygienist. Since November, 1923, the parochial schools have had a director of health education who supervises the health teaching program which is based on the N. C. W. C. course of study in health education. Through her efforts the Knights of Columbus have been interested in caring for the eyes of school children by providing the services of an eye specialist and also the glasses when these could not be procured otherwise.

The parochial school program also includes such activities as the prevention of diphtheria and goiter, care of undernourished children and correction of defects. A visitor observing the health program of the parochial school cannot but be impressed with the enthusiasm of both Sisters and pupils for this new type of work, with the healthful condition of the pupils and the sanitary condition of the school buildings. It is a far cry from the health lessons of the old school when the names of the bones were recited verbatim, while children lounged in their seats or stood with faulty posture. What a contrast with the old time lesson on air when children, many of them in need of tonsillectomy or adenectomy, traced the ubiquitous atoms through their labyrinthian paths on the anatomical chart. And the room temperature at 69 or 70 degrees. Through play and interesting child

activities health teaching is now made a part of the everyday interests and experiences of the child and the result is healthy happy children and enlightened future citizens.

Many of the benefits derived from such a demonstration cannot be measured since they are intangible attitudes, ideals and principles which will result in improved community life in the future and which will insure a better second and third generation with eventually a healthier nation and race. But these ends would be too remote to prove within the space of five years, the period of the demonstration, that its methods and channels of operation were efficacious. However, there are nearer goals and objectives which are rapidly being attained. Already, after only two years' work, the infant welfare program has resulted in the unusually low infant mortality rate of 69.6. Thirty years ago 200 out of every 1,000 babies born in Syracuse died before they reached their first birthday. Intermittent attempts to overcome this condition brought the number down to 100 in 1919. Since 1923, however, the biggest drop has been made resulting in the present figure. Deaths from gastro-intestinal diseases in infants have been reduced from 56 to 28 per thousand. In the pre-school age deaths from communicable diseases among children, as well as morbidity and serious after effects from the same cause, have been reduced decidedly by the use of the preventive measures referred to previously. The tuberculosis rate also tells an interesting story. In 1900 for every 100,000 population there were 184 deaths from tuberculosis. In 1908 the first year tuberculosis clinics were held in Syracuse, the rate fell to 146 per 100,000. At the opening of the demonstration the rate was about 115, while the 1924 rate is 44 per 100,000. This is decidedly low, since the rate for the United States as a whole is 94, and for New York State 98.

With the school child, the results will be evidenced more from year to year by a reduction in the amount of illness and the number of physical defects with a decrease in the school absence figures and consequent retardation and elimination problem. While actual figures which point to the effectiveness of the school health program as a whole are not yet available, those which have been published relative to the correction of physical defects in general and to the special prevention of goiter are

telling. In 1924, 7,340 physical defects reported were corrected. These included 659 tonsillectomies and adenectomies, 1,192 of defective vision corrected, and 3,863 of defective teeth cared for. After the administration of minute doses of iodine to school children, the goitres of 536 had decreased in size and in the case of 411 others the condition had disappeared. Since Syracuse is in the "Goiter Belt" such results are far-reaching. It is impossible here to treat many other phases of the demonstration which deserve notice, but, if there are any who believe that mortality and morbidity rates are fixed by God, that sickness is a heavenly visitation due to iniquity, or that school health work is good only in theory—to them we would say Syracuse bears watching.

MARY E. SPENCER.

SOME MIRRORS OF YOUTH—II

VII

It is difficult for one who has, in a way grown up on Compton Mackenzie to judge him dispassionately. Catholic circles of a certain quality inclining, to mid-Victorian views of life and literature, have never quite accepted either Compton Mackenzie's conversion or his books, and a number of controversies have been necessary on this side of the water to gain him a hearing in the minds of good people who are intent in forming what they call a Catholic literature. Leaving aside the wisdom or even the possibility of such a classification, there are some reasons why Mackenzie will hardly appeal to rigid minds. There is an apparent formlessness difficult to those who expect every incident to lock with another in cut-puzzle fashion, and there is certainly a bold courage in dealing with the facts of life. When Thackeray wrote "Pendennis" he remarked at the outset there were certain things he would not treat of, but to the author of "Sinister Street" it is enough that a thing should have happened to be recorded, recorded however in language of fitness, delicacy, and often of piercing beauty. "Sinister Street," the novel which we will consider, seems to be the very atmosphere of youth bound between book-covers. Many of the pages are like so many mirrors held up to the face of youth; it is almost as if they might say with Shylock, "If you prick us, do we not bleed?"

The thought of Keats is never far away from one in reading "Sinister Street," for it is with a sentence culled from the introduction to Keat's "Endymion" that Mackenzie crests his whole book: "The imagination of a boy is healthy, and the mature imagination of a man is healthy; but there is a space of life between, in which the soul is in ferment, the character undecided, the way of life uncertain, the ambition thick-sighted." As we pass to a consideration of the book itself we may note that Mackenzie has said of himself that it was from Keats he learned to write prose.

"Sinister Street" is the story of Michael Fane, a complete panorama of his childhood and youth from the first memories

of "his coming by some unrealized method of transport to a thin red house, has arrival coinciding with a confusion of furniture," to what might be called the end of his youth, a year after he has gone down from Oxford, when he stands in the ruined Coliseum in the Roman moonlight with the words on his lips, "Rome! Rome! How parochial you make my youth!" There is, as we say, very little plot in the two volumes, yet there is something much better and more life-like, each phase of Michael's growing up is prophetic, as is boyhood and youth, of the next phase. With the tapestry of Mackenzie's prose unrolling before us, we see him as a lonely little boy during his neglected childhood surveying the London airs over the house-tops of Carlington road, amid the cheeping of countless sparrows; frightened by his nurse's tales of nightly horrors; watching his baby sister singing to herself, "chanting her saga, primitive and immemorial sounds flowing from her dewy mouth; melodies and harmonies, akin to the day itself." We see him in the hands of his various teachers, quarreling with other boys at school, then, as he grows toward adolescence, in various athletic, artistic and religious phases. We see here developed at great length the changes the normal child goes through at adolescence,¹ the school friendships, the growing love for books and music, the passionate stirrings of religious impulse, and the tender passion, all the bursts of bitterness, ecstasy, brutality and poetry that lead up to what French writers have called the *éclosion*, that sudden but certain hour when the young spirit unfolds in blossom, as imperceptibly as an orchard, as foreseen yet as unaccountable as April unfurling from the gray sheath of March. And thus we come by a religious awakening at Clere Abbey, where Michael spends a vacation, by means various Anglican masses, by way of prayer and delicious calf-love to Michael's feeling through the power

¹ Dr. Lancaster's investigations in these adolescent changes embodied in an interesting article "The Psychology and Pedagogy of Adolescence" printed in "The Pedagogical Seminary" (July, 1897, Vol. 5, p. 106) record that out of 1,000 biographies of youth examined, two hundred were selected for careful study. Out of these the following adolescent changes were noted: 120 cases showed a distinct craze for reading in adolescence, 109 became great lovers of nature, 58 wrote poetry, 55 showed a sudden eagerness for school, 53 became devoted to art and music; 53 to religion, 51 left home in their teens, or engaged in other kinds of dominant leadership, 46 showed marked scientific tastes; 34 an increased power of observation, the health of 32 was better, 31 became passionately altruistic, 15 would reform society, and only 7 continued to hate school.

of music "that life was beginning all over again"—and on this note the first book ends. There remains however for the Mackenzie "fan" a second volume of almost seven hundred pages which chronicle the amenities and charms of life in an Oxford college with a year of romantic education beyond. Michael moves slowly through these golden and gay years, and Mackenzie lingers with slackened pace behind him, "*captus dulcetidine*" as one critic shrewdly notes, drunk with the beauty of a Oxford spring. It is a period of repose, of intense and quiet growth of that wisdom which comes only from an opportunity of leisure. He braces himself with history, with poetry, with high friendships which make the volume an addition to the literature of Oxford worthy to stand beside Newman's "*Loss and Gain*"—worthy of the Oxford where Scotus walked in a happier day, where Raleigh shone, where Johnson suffered and where Shelley dreamed. Then we are ready for a plunge into the world again, and in the section entitled "*Romantic Education*" Michael goes to Half-Moon Street, Neptune Crescent, and Tinderbox Lane, into the half-world of London to find again his lost love, Lily—then on with a cataclysmic rush to his final disillusionment, and the end of youth. This second volume, no less than the first, is woven on the loom of youth, though it is perhaps not what is ordinarily thought of as schoolboy adolescence. Mackenzie has dealt sincerely, delicately, plainly, and beautifully with that phase of romantic education which is the usual accompaniment of youth's coming of age. The truth of this is that since writing "*Sinister Street*" he has been able to draw six or eight subsidiary studies out of the book.

We might insist here on the circumstance that "*Sinister Street*" or for that matter any of the books of Mackenzie are not a mere random collection of reminiscences retouched by imagination. Indeed, every incident in this long two-volume novel is carefully chosen for its psychological value. Father C. C. Martindale, S.J., a critic especially fitted by training and mind to give a just judgment, writes: "The sheer accuracy of Mackenzie's memory is nothing short of uncanny. Every tiniest detail of fact is exactly right, and every tiniest detail is present." This book is certainly a glass and mould in which one may observe what young men of today are thinking.

VIII

Take a few cases of his power to transfigure ordinary life with a crystalline vitality. In great books ideas frequently catch vital attitudes in incidents: sometimes a whole classic will live for us in one incident, such as Dido with Ascanius upon her knees, listening to the soft rise and fall of hexameters on the mouth of Aeneas; Becky Sharp throwing away her dictionary, Hamlet in his mother's chamber; old Maura speaking of the white boards ready for the coffin in Synge's "Riders to the Sea."

In "Sinister Street" we see Michael in moods and attitudes the implications of which are manifold and unforgettable. He runs the complete gamut of child emotions from a Calvinistic town church where he could lick the varnish and the curate fondled him, with hand like a poultice—to running away: "He looked round at the world for the first time with freedom's eyes. He was free under a great gusty sky, free to climb railings, to pick up shells from the gravel walk, to lie on his back in the grass and brood upon the huge elm trees that caught the clouds in their net. Michael wandered along to a drinking fountain to which access had been forbidden. He drank four cups of water from the captive mug, he eyed curiously the many children who, free as himself, ran up and down the steps of the fountain. He wished for barley-sugar that he might give it to them, and thus earn their approbation."

The necessity of grown-up morality was delightfully unintelligible to him.

"The emancipation of being grown up seemed to Michael to be a magnificent prospect. To begin with it was no longer possible to be naughty. He realized indeed that crimes were a temptation to some grown-ups, that people of a certain class committed burglaries and murders, but as he felt no inclination to do either, he looked forward to a life of unbroken virtue (p. 66)."²

²"So far as he could ascertain, grown-up people were exempt from even the necessity to distinguish between good and evil. If Michael examined the Commandments one by one, this became obvious. *Thou shalt have none other gods than me.* Why should one want to have? One was enough. The children of Israel must be different from Michael. He could not understand such peculiar people. *Make not to thyself any graven image.* The only difficulty about this Commandment was its length for learning. Otherwise it did not seem to bear upon present-day life. *Thou*

IX

The nature of a child is above all things receptive. Newness rushes in upon it like the calm after a star-shaking thunder. The world is an avalanche of wonder sliding by; millions of new sensations rush to the expectant waiting senses; points of view and great life principles swing past like so many planets trailing glory, and all this with such apocalyptic wonder that the senses, widening and expanding to the utmost, almost faint under the impossibility of receiving and assimilating anything but a portion of the living wonder.

And yet these are, perhaps, after all the less remarkable things about Michael's growing-up. We spoke a moment ago of what French spiritual writers call the mystical *éclosion*, literally the blossoming of the human spirit. This phenomenon was certainly known long before the development of the New Psychology. Spiritual writers have referred to it under various names, such as the period of the second conversion, the moment the young soul comes to realize what devotion to the Holy Ghost means, or some similar form of spiritual experience. It is, as it were, a time when the life of the spirit seems to broaden, to deepen, and to strike deep into truth—or, perhaps, when grace like a river overflows the senses and the imagination and the spiritual man can hardly assimilate or hold the new flood of wonder. It is this moment that religious novitiates are timed for, and

shalt not take the name of the Lord Thy God in vain. This was another vague injunction. Who wanted to? *Remember thou keep holy the Sabbath day.* It was obviously simple matter for grown-up people, who no longer enjoyed playing with toys, to keep this Commandment. At present it was difficult to learn and more difficult to keep. *Honor thy father and thy mother.* He loved his mother. He would even love her if she forgot him. He might not love her as much as formerly but he would always love her. *Thou shalt do no murder.* Michael had no intention of doing murder. Since the Hangman in Punch and Judy he had been cured of any inclination to murder. *Thou shalt not commit adultery.* Why should he ever want to marry another man's wife? At present he could not imagine himself married to anybody. He supposed that as a result of growing up he would want to get married. But forewarned he would take care not to choose somebody else's wife. *Thou shalt not steal.* With perfect freedom to eat where and what one liked, why should one steal? *Thou shalt not bear false witness.* It would be necessary to lie when grown up (not), because one could not be punished. *Thou shalt not covet thy neighbor's ox.* He would covet nothing, for when he was grown up he would be able to obtain whatever he wanted."

This and the next page or so are filled with a delightful analysis by a child-mind of the Commandments.

the lives of the saints are rich in examples of it from St. Antony rushing away to live in a desert cave, to the gentle de Sales falling from his horse and finding heroic sanctity in the thought that assailed him as he fell. Its coming is as premeditated yet as sudden as spring that bird, flower or unfurling leaf never yet accounted for but were part of. *Spiritus ubi vult spirat.*

The flowering of the spirit is a high point in all this literature, especially in Michael's case. Even as a boy at Even Song while the ritualistic young man, Mr. Prout, merely saw that the incensing of the altar was all right "the words were burned on Michael's heart, and for the first time he sang the Nunc Dimittis with a sense of the privilege of addressing Almighty God."

What a fine description of Confession is this:

Michael found that first Confession an immense strain upon his truthfulness and pluck, and he made up his mind never to commit another mortal sin, so deeply did he blush in the agony of revelation. Venial faults, viewed in the aggregate, became appalling, and the real sins, as one by one Michael compelled himself to admit them, stabbed his self-consciousness with daggers of shame. Michael had a sense of completeness which prevented him from making a bad Confession, from gliding over his sins and telling half-truths, and having embarked upon the duties of his religion, he was not going to avoid them. The Confession seemed to last forever. Beforehand, Michael had supposed there would be only one Commandment whose detailed sins would make his heart beat with the difficulty of confessing them; but when he knelt in the empty church before the severe priest, every breach of the Commandments assumed a demoniac importance. Michael thought that never before could Father Viner have listened to such a narration of human depravity from a boy of fifteen, or even from a man full grown. He half expected to see the priest rise and leave his chair in disgust. Michael felt beads of sweat trickling from his forehead: the strain grew more and more terrible, the crucifix gave him no help: the book he held fell from his fingers. Then he heard the words of absolution, tranquil as evening bells. The inessentials of his passionate religion faded away in the strength and beauty of God's acceptance of his penitence. Outside in the April sunlight Michael could have danced his exultation before he ran home winged with the ecstasy of a light heart (p. 237).

And on the way to Clere Abbas, an Anglican Benedictine monastery on the Berkshire Downs, the conversion is completed.

"Hark!" shouted Chator suddenly. "I hear the Angelus."

Both boys dismounted and listened. Somewhere indeed, a bell was chiming, but the bell was of such a quality that the sound of it through the summer was like a cuckoo's song in its unrelation to place. Michael and Chator murmured their salute of the Incarnation, and perhaps for the first time Michael half realized the mysterious condescension of God. Here, high up on these downs, the Word became imaginable, a silence of wind and sunlight.

He speaks to his friend and tells him he believes he has been converted, "not to anything, only different from what I was just now," and wants to mark the place, "because when I was converted, I felt a sudden sense of being frightfully alive. I'd like to put a stone there and plant hare-bells around it. I like stones. They're so frightfully old, and I'd like to think, if ever I was a long way from here, of my stone and the hare-bells looking at it—every year new hare-bells and the same old stone."³

There is as much interesting and authentic psychological material in the second volume of Michael's development as the first, a wealth of incident enriched by imagination which will give the reader a pang that he could not have derived some like wealth from his own college days. There is a steady spiritual development all along the line in Michael, together with his intellectual development, but we have no space to trace it here. One must read the book itself, the colorful Spanish chapters where Michael learns the lesson of faith from Catholic Spain, "coming away curiously fortified by his observation of the moldy confessionals worn down by the knees of so many penitents," of his first meeting with Guy Hazlewood, the poet in the country inn of a May evening, and their scudding back to Oxford "in the light of half a moon," of the state dinners, the reading parties, vacations, and friendships that any collegian could parallel with a change of detail. We have concentrated attention upon Michael but the book is crowded with interesting people, many of whom we see in later volumes of MacKenzie. One should not miss Mrs. Fane, Michael's mother; his sister, the flawless Stella; his boyhood teacher, Maud

³ In similar vein a French soldier of 19, Jean Rival of Grenoble, wrote in a letter, "I feel within me such an intensity of life, such a need of loving and of being loved, of expanding, of breathing deeply and freely, that I cannot believe that death will touch me." But the world itself became too strait a dwelling for him, when he was killed in the Somme Advance of 1916.

Carthew, who writes him after her conversion to the Catholic church that she has "never been able to see how English boys continue to muddle along without the Sacraments;" and the host of schoolboy friends, Guy Hazelwood, the poet; fickle Maurice Avery; faithful Alan Merivale; Arthur Lonsdale, and so on—what names crowd in upon one of other throngs that Michael knew in Neptune Crescent, priests, beggars, tramps, a murderer, Lily (beautiful and frail as her name) and finally the incomparable Sylvia Scarlett, who make a list that for one book is not surpassed by anything in the whole range of English fiction.

With a word, we must close a brief notice of this greatest novel of adolescence in English. Yet we must crowd in a word about the interesting adolescents in other Mackenzie novels. Pauline Grey, whose romance with Guy Hazlewood makes up the volume "Plasher's Mead," is the most natural and unstudied young girl since Jane Austen's Elizabeth Bennet; and it would be regrettable not to be able to at least mention of her sisters Monica and Margaret, of Richard Ford, of clerical Mark Lidderdale in the days of his Welsh boyhood, of Sister Magdalene, of Aubrey Touchwood (modern edition of Dick Swiveller!) and his friends, of the many interesting young people in the Sylvia Scarlett books, pusillanimous Arthur Madden, Jimmy Monkley, the Russian soldier who buys Sylvia the golden bag, the Roumanian officer with whom she discusses the future of eastern Europe, pitiful Jennie Pearl, and countless others.⁴

(*To be continued*)

SPEER STRAHAN.

* The low English characters in Mackenzie books, such as Mrs. Gowndry, the Solutionist, Mere Gontran, and so on, might well form an interesting prose study in themselves.

CLASSICAL SECTION

This section aims first of all to act as a bureau of information for teachers of the Classics, particularly those of Catholic schools. Questions sent to me will be answered in these columns or by personal letter; or they will be turned over to persons fully qualified to give them proper consideration. It aims also to keep its readers informed of the most important movements and events in the world of the Classics, especially such as bear on the teaching of Latin and Greek in secondary schools.

Notes on Ecclesiastical Latin (Continued)

IV. The Use of "Voice" (Continued)

3. Deponent Verbs Used with Passive Meaning.

A few deponent verbs, as *confiteri*, were rarely used with a passive meaning even in the Classical period. By analogy with such verbs, other deponent verbs were so used in the late periods of the language. Thus we note *remunerari* so used in Minucius Felix (Octav. 7), in Tertullian (Ap. 46), and in St. Cyprian (314, 4). *Aspernari* and the past participle *praefatus* are used in a passive sense by Arnobius (cf. V, 25 and V, 27, respectively). Many other examples might also be cited.

4. The Use of the Passive Voice.

In general, writers of the Classical period preferred the active voice to the passive voice, wherever a choice was possible. In the later periods, from the imperial epoch on, there was a growing tendency to use the passive, especially with the infinitive.

Sometimes we find the passive infinitive where we would expect to see a complementary clause introduced by a conjunction. E. g.

Arnobius I, 38: *qui quo auctore, quo patre. mundus iste sit constitutus et conditus, fecit benignissime sciri (=fecit ut homines scirent).*

This use of the passive infinitive is especially noticeable with impersonal verbs.

Arnobius II, 68: *atque ut rufulos (tauros) liceret dari.*

Arnobius III, 6: *quos par sit adiungi summi regis ac principis venerationi.*

V. The Use of Moods

1. Indicative.

In the Archaic period of the Latin language an expression like *dic quid est* was looked upon as two independent proposition.

In the terms of the grammarian, *parataxis* rather than *syntaxis* prevailed. It was only in the Classical period that the indirect question was regarded by writers as being always subordinate and so always construed with the subjunctive. This variety of construction resulted in the writers of the later periods using the subjunctive and indicative indifferently in indirect questions. E. g., *quare isto voluit et illo genere noluit, latent . . . causae.*

Another classical usage that seems to have fallen into disfavor with writers of the late period is the use of the subjunctive in relative clauses which denote cause. Greek regularly uses the indicative, and so frequently do some writers of Ecclesiastical Latin. E. g., *immunes tamen a deorum maletractatione nec sic estis, qui aut talia cessatis maleficia vindicare*, etc.

2. Subjunctive.

There is a great variation among Christian writers in their use of the subjunctive mood, even among writers so closely contemporaneous as Cyprian and Arnobius. Some peculiarities are the following:

The verb *cessare* is often followed by *quin* and the subjunctive, although the infinitive alone is usual in classical times. E. g., *quid cessatis, quin et ipsos dicatis deos ludere . . . ?*

Instead of the infinitive with the subject accusative, *ut* or *quod* with the subjunctive or more rarely the indicative was used after declarative verbs of "saying," "believing," and "knowing."

E. g., *si modo rectum est credere quod motibus exagitentur irarum.*

nonne erit consequens, ut debeat credat . . . ut favorem suum commodent locupleti . . . ?

Vulgar Latin always used this construction, the origin of which is easy to discern. *Quod* after *hoc*, or even without it, signifies "the fact that," and often introduces a proposition whose value approximates the infinitive clause so closely that one could not always differentiate the two. Thus the change was easy, under the further influence of the Greek form of indirect discourse with *διτι*. From the second century on, this construction may be seen frequently in Apuleius, Tertullian, St. Cyprian, St. Jerome, Ammianus Marcellinus, and Gregory of Tours.

Quia and less frequently *quoniam* are sometimes used in place of *quod* and *ut*.

3. Infinitive.

From the period of the Empire on, the use of the infinitive, particularly the substantive infinitive, became more and more ex-

tended. The Latin poets of all periods, for reasons of metre and novelty, had a tendency to use the infinitive more than the writers of classical prose. In this they were also following the example of popular Latin, and the Greek poets.

(a) *The Infinitive with Adjectives.*

Strictly speaking, classical prose does not use the infinitive depending on an adjective. It employs the infinitive only with the participles of certain verbs used adjectively, such as *paratus*, *assuetus*, *doctus*, etc.

The poets and prose writers of the Imperial epoch so construed many other adjectives, chiefly those signifying "capable of," "desirous of," "content to," "worthy of," "good or easy to do," etc.

The infinitive after *dignus* does not occur once in Cicero, but appears frequently after him.

Examples of this use of infinitive in late Latin are:

qui ferre nominis huius auctoritatem condigni sunt.

dignus . . . est tantorum ob munerum gratiam Deus dici. . . .

Quod sit immane dixisse (=dictu).

solum illud posuisse contenti.

The American Academy in Rome (The School of Classical Studies) announces its Fourth Summer Session, July 5 to August 13, 1926. Teachers and graduate students in the Classics, History, and related subjects are invited to attend.

The program will consist of one comprehensive and unified course designed to communicate a general acquaintance with the city in all its phases from the first settlement to the present time, and a special acquaintance with it in the times of Cicero, Caesar, Virgil, and the first Emperors.

The lectures will be given in the Academy building, before the monuments, and at the sites. Independent reading and written work will be required. The Academy certificate, recommending a credit of six hours in American Graduate Schools, will be presented on completion of the work by examination.

Total necessary expenses, including voyage from and to New York and the Academy fee of \$50.00, may be calculated at about \$550.00.

For further details, communicate with Professor Grant Showerman, 410 North Butler Street, Madison, Wisconsin.

Mr. Robert W. Gardner, a New York architect, has issued

through the press of New York University an elaborate mathematical study of the Parthenon, in which he endeavors to prove that the Greeks attained their mastery of proportion by means of the square and compass alone, and proceeds to an elaborate demonstration of his theory that Ictinus created the Parthenon by means of three series of concentric squares, commensurable in their area and progressing on symmetrical axes in geometrical order. He regards the Parthenon as the visible mathematical and physical symbol of the conversion of Greek philosophy into works of art.

The following publications from Miss Sabin's Service Bureau for Classical Teachers (Teachers College, Columbia University, New York), are of special note.

No. II of "Little Studies in Greek for the Latin Teacher," dealing chiefly with prefixes and suffixes. Price, 10 cents.

A pamphlet on "How the Romans Dressed," the first number of a new series entitled "Rome and the Romans." These booklets will deal with important aspects of Roman life, and are designed for the use of younger pupils. Price, 20 cents. Reduced prices for twenty or more.

Lecture notes on Cicero. Price, 5 cents.

Illustrations of "problems" designed for review work in a Caesar class. Price, 5 cents.

A short list of Latin papers published in various high schools. Price, 5 cents.

Latin Notes Supplement XI—Latin narrative in the first two years—what the English textbooks have to offer. Price, 10 cents.

Lantern slides dealing with the Aeneid may be secured from Mr. A. Bruderhansen, 1309 Webster Ave., New York. The set consists of 75 and may be secured for \$30.00. Single slides may be secured for 50 cents. Arrangements may be made for renting sets. Slides dealing with other subjects are in process of preparation. For further information address Mr. Bruderhansen.

The interest in Medieval Latin goes on unabated. We have already noted the publication of two anthologies of Medieval Latin. A third has just appeared by K. P. Harrington, from Allyn and Bacon. A special round table session on Medieval Latin will be held at the meeting of the American Philological Association at Ithaca, on December 30. The following papers

will be presented. "Some Aspects of Medieval Latin Style," by Professor Marbury B. Ogle, of Ohio State University; and "Medieval and Modern Latin in the College Curriculum," by Professor Dean P. Lockwood, of Haverford College.

At the Fourth Annual Meeting of the Ohio Classical Conference, held at Columbus in November, Sister Mary Gonzaga of Ursuline College, Cleveland, read a paper entitled, "Notes on Paratactic Kdi in the New Testament."

Some time ago we had occasion to consider a very famous palindrome, i.e., a short saying which was the same whether read from the left or the right. The following, though less famous, are of the same character:

1. Nemo te cedis (caedis) murorum si decet omen.
2. Roma tibi subito motibus ibit amor.
3. Sole medere pede, ede perede melos.
4. Si bene te tua laus taxat sua laute tenebis.
Et necat eger (aeger) amor non Roma rege tacente.
Roma reges una non anus eger (aeger) amor.
5. Aspice nam raro mittit timor arma nec ipsa.
Si se mente reget non tegeret Nemesis.

The following are the most recent publications of Latin plays for high schools:

Downing, J. P. Easy Oral Latin (contains one Latin play), 1924. Address the author, Lawrence-Smith School, 848 Madison Ave., New York. Price, \$1.00.

Downing, J. P. Three Short Latin Plays. Based on the Helvetian War. 1925. Address as above. Price, \$30.

Downing, J. P. Three Short Latin Plays for Junior High Schools. 1925. Address as above. Price, \$30.

Edwards, Walter A. Roman Tales Retold. 1924. Scott, Foresman and Co., Chicago. Price, \$60. Contains one play, *Ex Mari*, an adaptation of Plautus' *Rudens*. For the second year.

Lawler, Lillian B. Simple Latin Playlets. University of Iowa Extension Bulletin (1925). Price, \$50.

Smith, S. Archibald. *Puer Qui ad Ludem Ire Noluit*. 1922. Address the author at Friends' Academy, Locust Valley, Long Island, N. Y. A farce in three acts with translation on opposite pages.

AFFILIATED HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE SECTION

OFFICIAL APPROVAL OF A COURSE IN BUSINESS LAW

The law in our country is the voice of a sovereign people. This striking characteristic of our republican form of democracy makes it imperative that every citizen should be trained not solely in obeying the law, but in understanding its importance in the several phases of our social organization. Law is not merely a rule to be followed in a servile way, but an expression of the deeper principles of truth and justice. It is this latter aspect of law, when once grasped, which makes for loyalty and righteousness, the cardinal elements of citizenship. When law is properly understood, each individual and the community as a whole will not only recognize it as something entitled to observance, but also see in it an object of their continual, whole-hearted and vigorous endeavors for the improvement and extension of its beneficent effects for each and for all.

What is true of law in general is a truth of far greater import when it is a question of the laws which are of the most immediate concern to the citizen and his daily pursuits. The physician should, it is evident, be conversant with those phases of the law which direct and protect the medical profession. The cleric, the teacher and others representative of the older professions should have an accurate and practical grasp of the laws of their respective fields in order that they, too, can safely and properly carry on their work for the social good.

The majority of society should know in a practical manner so much of the law as is necessary for the regulation of their conduct and the protection of their individual and common rights. It is evident, then, that the course of study designed to meet the needs of the larger portion of the people in the study of law should have as its subject matter the general laws of business. In a very special manner is this the case for those who are preparing themselves for office work or other positions in the commercial world.

The secondary schools of our country seemed to have sensed this need and are striving to meet it. The following figures, taken from Bulletin No. 7 issued in 1924 by the Bureau of

Education at Washington, D. C., will help to indicate what has been accomplished along these lines. There were in 1921 nearly 20,000 pupils in our American high schools reported as following a course in Commercial Law. Doubtless this number has increased considerably during the past four years. If we add to these figures the number of pupils in our business colleges who are following a course in Business Law, the present number of students can safely be computed at about 50,000.

A comparison of the courses in this subject as approved by such standardizing agencies as the University of the State of New York with the syllabi of such centers as Boston, Kansas City, Chicago, and those of California and other western states clearly shows that this subject as a high school course has long past beyond the experimental stage. The striking similarity of these syllabi indicates that this course, through continued usage, has become a standardized part of the high school curriculum.

The above facts, together with the numerous requests from the high schools affiliated with the Catholic University of America, place, beyond further doubt and cavil, the propriety and expediency of the approval of a course in Business Law as a free elective for the Affiliated High Schools.

The aim of such a course should be to give the student a definite knowledge of the laws governing and protecting business procedure. To realize this aim, the laws pertaining to the purchase and sale of goods, the making of contracts, the forming of partnerships and corporations and the proper procedure to be followed in the preparation and execution of all forms of negotiable instruments have been given their proper and due treatment, in the following outline approved by the Committee on Affiliation.

BUSINESS LAW

I. Contracts:

1. How contracts are made. Agreement between different parties. Why each party must give something in order to make a good contract. Why persons under twenty-one cannot be obliged to carry out their agreements. Right of married women to make contracts. Effect of fraud, mistake, and undue influence.

2. Illegal contracts. Some are contrary to law; some contrary to the welfare of the nation. Distinction between reasonable and unreasonable restraints of trade. Usury. Sunday contracts.
3. Classes of contracts. Express and implied contracts. Agreements which must be in writing in order to be enforced. The use of a seal.
4. Transfer of contract rights. Why an artist cannot sell his contract to perform personal services. Why a person can sell his rights in a promissory note or bank check. Difference between contracts for personal services and other types of contracts.
5. Performance of a contract; by carrying out the terms of the agreement by a new or changed agreement; by bankruptcy; by taking advantage of the statute of limitations.

II. Principal and Agent:

1. The right to do things by the authority of another person. Who are principals? Who are agents? Acts which the agent may do for his principal; meaning of the term "ratification" by the principal.
2. Responsibility of the principal for the acts of the agent. Responsibility of the agent for his own acts which are wrongful. Responsibility of both principal and agent to other persons for the acts of principal or agent.
3. The termination of the rights of the agent; by agreement; by death of the principal, or by his insanity. Notice to the world that the agency is ended.

III. Sales:

1. Legal aspects of a sale. Distinction between a sale and other transactions apparently similar in their nature, as a gift, a bailment. Sales required to be in writing.
2. Warranties in sales. Right of the salesman to "puff" his wares. Express and implied warranties of goods sold.
3. Transfer of ownership by a sale of property. When legal title passes. The sale C. O. D. distinguished from other types of sales. Meaning of F. O. B. Sales of bills of lading and warehouse receipts.
4. Rights of buyer or seller in case the other party has not made good on his agreement to sell or buy. Suits for damages; stopping the goods en route; holding the goods until payment is made.

IV. Negotiable Instruments:

1. Kinds of negotiable paper. Requisites for a valid promissory note, check, or bill of exchange. Common forms used in each case. What happens when a single requirement, for example, the signature, is lacking.

2. Transfer of negotiable paper. Indorsement and delivery usually sufficient to pass title. Different kinds of indorsements and purposes of each kind.
3. Collection of the money due on a negotiable instrument. Right of the holder in due course to payment at maturity. Difference between real and personal defences to negotiable paper.
4. Liability of the parties. Why the maker of a note is primarily liable and the indorser secondarily liable. Dangers in signing negotiable paper as a favor for a friend. Necessity of giving notice to indorsers if paper dishonored at maturity.

V. Partnerships and Corporations:

1. Nature of a partnership. How it is formed. Purposes and advantages of this form of business organization. Rights and duties of the partners in a business enterprise.
2. Relations between partnership and the outside world. Rights of creditors. Rights of individual partners to contract in name of partnership. Responsibility of each partner for debts of partnership.
3. Winding up a partnership; by agreement; by operation of law.
4. Nature of a corporation; difference between the corporation and the partnership. *De jure* and *de facto* corporations. Advantages of the corporate form of business organization. Powers of the corporation. Rights and responsibilities of the corporation in its relations with the public.
5. Rights and duties of the stockholders in a corporation. Dividends. Ultra vires acts of the corporation. Meaning of the term "watered stock" and its relation to the corporation. Dissolution of the corporation; by law; by acts of the officers or stockholders of the corporation.

BUSINESS LAW

Books recommended for course in Business Law:

Business Law, by Alfred W. Bays. Published by Macmillan Co., 1925.

The Elements of Business Law, by Ernest W. Hoffcut, revised by George Gleason Bogert. Published by Ginn & Co. Second Revised Edition.

Commercial Law, by P. B. S. Peters. Published by South-Western Publishing Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.

SUPPLEMENTARY

Supplementary books recommended for the teachers:

Cases on Commercial Law, by Alfred W. Bays. Second Edition. Published by Callaghan and Company, Chicago.

- Cases on Business Law*, by William Everett.
Britton and Ralph Stanley Bauer. Published by West Publishing Company, St. Paul, Minn.
- Bays' Commercial Law* (5 volumes), by Alfred W. Bays.
Published by Callaghan and Company, Chicago. (This is a textbook treatment of the law combined with frequent case illustrations.)

NEWS ITEMS

An event of general interest to all our affiliated institutions has been inaugurated at Nazareth College and Academy of Nazareth, Ky. It is the reorganization of extra-curricular activities. The details of this step on the part of the students and faculty of Nazareth will gladly be furnished to any of the affiliated colleges or high schools by the secretary of the Standing Committee upon request. The chief benefits resulting from this project are the protection of the free time of the students, the better distribution of efforts on the part of the individual clubs and societies, and the interlocking of these for the advancement of their common purpose—a greater and better known Nazareth.

The following well-known lecturers honored this institution during the fall term. Mr. Henry Sullivan, the first American to swim the English Channel, treated the students entertainingly and instructively to a cinematographic description of his triumph. Mr. Raine, former United States Treasury Representative in Alaska, gave an illustrated talk on "The Beauties and Possibilities of Alaska."

Armistice Day was fittingly observed by an inter-class track meet. Only those scoring 85 per cent in Physical Culture are eligible to membership in their respective class teams. This point-system, introduced last year by Miss Ruth Sonderman, has done much towards stimulating a lively interest in athletics and in bringing them into closer relation with the other work of the pupils.

A very practical project has been carried on by the pupils of the class of Interior Decoration and Art at Marymount Academy, Tarrytown, N. Y., in the redecoration of their rooms.

LEO L. MCVAY.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

PRESIDENT BUTLER'S ANNUAL REPORT

The annual report of the President of Columbia University for 1925 is a document which will well repay perusal by anyone interested in the problems of modern higher education. Not only are the facts which he reports concerning the present status of Columbia University of great interest, but his general observations on such topics as the development of university education in the United States, the relation between education and law and order, and the place of religion in the college curriculum, are thought provoking, as can be seen from the following statement concerning the difficulty of finding men of high, scholarly attainments to occupy teaching positions in the university.

The most pressing and insistent of all university problems at the moment is the finding of men soundly and broadly trained, with philosophic grasp of their chosen field of knowledge, with large intellectual outlook and sympathy, and with eager competence to press forward into new fields and to carry an enthusiastic company of younger scholars with them. If such can be found, the immediate future of the university is secure; but if they cannot be found, then the outlook is difficult and dark indeed.

The problem is gravely complicated by the odd assortment of anti-philosophies which, attempting to wear the garb of philosophy and using its nomenclature, just now occupy a considerable portion of the academic stage. These anti-philosophies are the product of minds that have never really grasped the meaning of the word philosophy or the significance of philosophy itself. They either confuse philosophy with psychology, after the fashion of John Locke and William James, or they look upon it as a more or less ornamental appendage of the natural and experimental sciences. They appear to have no conception of the fundamental fact first discovered and made irrefutably clear by Plato and Aristotle, nearly twenty-five hundred years ago, that there are three distinct stages or orders of thinking manifested by man. The first is the stage of uncritical common sense which lies below the horizon of the intellectual life. It is characteristic of the child and of the countless millions of unreflecting adults. It has been dignified by the name common sense, but its proper designation is common ignorance.

The second stage or order of thinking looks upon the world

as one of constantly changing but definite objects whose inter-relations are of massive significance. This point of view and the methods that have been developed for giving expression to it constitute science, the true source of whose life is to be found, as is admirably indicated in the profound words of Lotze, "in showing how absolutely universal is the extent, and at the same time how completely subordinate the significance, of the mission which mechanism has to fill in the structure of the world."

The third stage or order of knowing views the world as totality. There is, then, obviously nothing to which totality can be related, nothing on which it can be dependent, and no source from which its energy can be derived. The habit of mind which has reached this third stage or order of knowing, its standpoint and its insights, are philosophy. These, and these alone, are philosophy. He who cannot grasp the distinction between the three orders of knowing, and who cannot view the world or cosmos as totality, is not capable of philosophy. His reflections and his teachings, however interesting or however important, should be called by some other name.

The liberally educated man is, consciously or unconsciously, cast in the philosophic mold. He has equipped himself for reflective thinking, for interpretation, and for those deeper insights into the meaning of knowledge and of life that raise him above the common mass of men. It is this liberally educated man who, when fired by scholarly zeal and passion for truth, makes the ideal academic teacher and gives to the youth who surround him some portion of his own insights and his own character. This is the man for whom the university is in search as its various posts of leadership and distinction fall vacant with the lapse of time.

CATHOLIC PUBLIC LIBRARY IN DUBLIN

Rev. Stephen J. Brown, S.J., has started a Catholic Library in Dublin, the first distinctively and exclusively Catholic Public Library established in Ireland. The work is being conducted entirely on voluntary lines and is in no way subsidized by public funds.

Father Brown is endeavoring to make the library as representative of the best Catholic thought as possible. The supporters of the movement feel that the work is very necessary at the present time, if the strong and simple faith for which Ireland has been renowned is to be preserved in the midst of the changes that are taking place at present in the social and intellectual life of the people.

The REVIEW recommends this project to the interest and generosity of its readers. The address is Central Park Library, 18 Hawkins Street, Dublin, Ireland.

NOTES FROM CURRENT PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Principles of Education

"Formalism, An Ever-Present Danger." R. H. Eckelberry, Educational Review, December, 1925. The writer points out the danger of formalism in two outstanding educational movements, viz., intelligence and achievement testing and the project method. Insists upon the necessity of grasping the spirit and understanding the philosophy that underlies each of these.

"Physical Education Objectives and A Program." J. H. Nichols, Educational Review, December, 1925. A discussion of the relation of physical education to the general objectives of education. Physical education has three objectives, viz., health, physical efficiency, social and moral efficiency. All teachers, no matter what their particular subject, are responsible for the attainment of these objectives. A program of physical education is outlined.

College and University

Prof. William Clark Trow, College of Education, University of Cincinnati, in "More Dangers of the Doctorate," Educational Review, December, 1925, discusses the results of a survey intended to discover what graduate students actually do to make up for the narrow specialization which their professional training entails. On the basis of the findings, it is concluded that, in the main, candidates for the Ph.D. degree, the college teachers of tomorrow, are narrow in their interests, and that this narrowness grows still more narrow during the period of their graduate study.

"Turn Out the Unfit or Fit 'Em." David A. Ward, Educational Review, December, 1925. A plea for universal higher education. The author maintains that the college should be open to all who may desire to enter, and that courses should be provided offering advanced work in various occupational lines.

"Give the Women What They Need." Frederick S. Breed,

Educational Review, December, 1925. A criticism, in the tone of Herbert Spencer, of the failure of the college to train women for their chief occupation in life. The writer sketches a newly organized course at Vassar designed to the needs of women and pleads for a general acceptance of a similar program.

"*What Freshmen Read.*" Charles B. Hale and Wesley B. Carroll, Educational Review, December, 1925. A statistical study of the reading of 143 freshmen at Cornell, showing a preference for romance, adventure and mystery. Authors advise securing such lists so that teachers may direct and counsel students in their reading.

"*Purpose in the American College.*" Abraham Flexner, School and Society, Dec. 12, 1925. Dr. Flexner contrasts the definite understanding on the part of Europeans of the purposes of secondary education with our lack of knowledge of objectives. The purpose of the American college is to select and train intelligence, and this task is being altogether imperfectly accomplished.

Administration and Supervision

"*A Modification of the Dalton Plan.*" H. C. Mason, School Review, December, 1925. A description of the introduction of a modified plan of individualized instruction in the High School at River Falls, Wisconsin.

"*The Professionalization of the Teaching Staff.*" Olive Gray, Elementary School Journal, November, 1925. A description of practical methods utilized by supervisors to aid teachers to grow in professional knowledge and skill.

"*Effects of Unnecessary Restraints Placed Upon Teachers.*" H. B. Wilson, Elementary School Journal, November, 1925. Evidence that administrative pressure may operate to prevent teachers from utilizing the best results of educational progress.

"*A Supervisor of Rural Schools Analyzes Her Task.*" Jennie E. Jessop, Educational Administration and Supervision, November, 1925. The report of the supervisory activities of a supervising teacher of one- and two-teacher rural schools.

"*Duties of an Elementary School Principal.*" Eurie Bell Bolton and Clara Howard, Peabody Journal of Education, November, 1925. A practical analysis of the administrative and supervisory functions of the elementary school principal.

"*A Four-Year Curriculum for the Preparation of Elementary*

Teachers." A. M. S. Robertson and others, *Educational Administration and Supervision*, September, 1925. An analysis of representative curricula and a detailed plan as to a better method of determining what should be taught in Teachers Colleges.

"Teacher Training and Curriculum Building." H. L. Lull, *Educational Administration and Supervision*, October, 1925. A description of the procedure being followed at the State Teachers College in Emporia, Kansas, in introducing teachers to the important problems connected with curriculum-making.

Educational Methods

"Subject Matter Versus Character Training." A. W. Hurd, *Journal of Educational Method*, December, 1925. A report of an experiment calculated to show the differing results achieved in teaching high school physics according to the assigned lesson plan and the plan of individual study and initiative.

"Functions of Flash Card Exercises in Reading." Arthur I. Gates, *Teachers College Record*, December, 1925. Results of a carefully organized experiment for determining the effects on reading ability of flash card exercises.

"Flash Cards as a Method of Improving Silent Reading Ability in the Third Grade." Robert E. Scott, *Journal of Educational Method*, November, 1925. An experiment much like the foregoing but with a larger group of children, which comes to a different conclusion.

"The Progress of Moral Development." Edward O. Sisson, *School and Society*, December 5, 1925. A practical study, indicating careful thought, which everyone interested in character formation should read.

Miscellaneous

Reagan, George W. "Principles Relating to the Engendering of Specific Habits." *University of Illinois, Educational Research Circular No. 36*, October 5, 1925, pp. 23. A discussion of the applications of the principles of habit formation to the problems of teaching.

Herriot, M. E. "How to Make a Course of Study in Arithmetic." *University of Illinois, Educational Research Circular*

No. 37, October 12, 1925, pp. 50. The technique of constructing a course of study is applied to arithmetic, and a guide is furnished for the construction or revision of such a course in arithmetic.

Buckingham, B. R. "Adding Up or Down: A Discussion." *Journal Educational Research*, 12 (1925), 251-261. A study of the preference for upward and downward addition of a group of students. Good reasons for downward addition are given.

Seybolt, R. F. "Notes on the Curriculum in Colonial America." *Journal Educational Research*, 12 (1925), 275-281.

Almack, John C. "The Literature and Problems of School Buildings," II. *Journal Educational Research*, 12 (1925), 228-235, 301-310. A bibliography of 219 titles relating to school buildings.

Schutte, T. H. "Is There Value in the Final Examination?" *Journal Educational Research*, 12 (1925), 204-213. A statistical study of an examination and a non-examination group of students.

Goodenough, F. L. "The Reading Tests of the Stanford Achievement Scale and Other Variables." *Journal Educational Psychology*, 16 (1925), 523-531. A study of the reading ability of 100 school children referred to a child guidance clinic for behavior difficulties.

Gilliland, A. R. "The Effect of Practice With and Without Knowledge of Results in Grading Handwriting." *Journal Educational Psychology*, 16 (1925), 532-536.

Abernethy, E. M. "Correlations in Physical and Mental Growth. *Journal Educational Psychology*, 16 (1925), 539-546. A statistical study of the relationship between physical and mental growth.

Gowen, J. W., and Gooch, M. "The Mental Attainments of College Students in Relation to Previous Training." *Journal Educational Psychology*, 16 (1925), 547-568. An analysis of the factors which make for mental success in college students.

Gates, A. I., and Taylor, G. A. "An Experimental Study of the Nature and Improvement Resulting from Practice in a Mental Function." *Journal Educational Psychology*, 16 (1925), 583-592.

Morgan, L. T. "The Elimination of Practice in Mental Tests." *Journal Educational Psychology*, 16 (1925), 619-628.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

Good English in Speaking and Writing, by Nell J. Young and Frederick W. Memmott. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1925. Fourth Grade, pp. 262, price, \$0.80; Fifth Grade, pp. 308, \$0.84; Sixth Grade, pp. 292, \$0.88.

That the English recitation should occupy a daily period distinct from that devoted to language drills and exercises is the principle which has determined the content of this language series. Emphasis throughout is on oral composition in the socialized recitation as a means of fostering the pupil's originality of thought and developing his power of expression. Designed to continue the work of the first three grades as outlined in a teacher's manual, *Methods in Elementary English*, these separate texts for each grade supply abundant material for composition as well as drill exercises to supplement those contained in the manual.

Library lessons, included in the fifth- and sixth-grade texts, explain the use of the card catalog, call numbers, and reference books.

The teacher is aided by the authors' arrangement of the work by months, and their suggestions as to the number of lesson periods into which the different sections may most advantageously be divided. At the end of each half-year's work, standards of achievement are listed under the caption, "What You Should Know."

With a double English period every day, based on these or any similar texts, and a teacher alert to her opportunity, the pupil's skill in reading and writing ought to be assured.

SISTER M. CATHERINE (Ursuline).

The Problem Child in School, by Mary B. Sayles. With a Description of the Purpose and Scope of Visiting Teacher Work, by Howard W. Nudd. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, 1925. \$1.00.

Educators are generally agreed that an important function of the school is to train children for right living, or, as the sociologists would have it, for social adaptation. The interest of teachers and school administrators is accordingly directed to

behavior problems no less than to scholastic achievements. The shift in the attitude of psychology in recent years to the dynamic point of view has resulted in revealing many of the hidden springs of human conduct, the mental mechanisms that serve as motivation forces in the behavior of the individual. Just as in medicine sound therapy depends upon correct diagnosis, so in the behavior problems of childhood correction and proper guidance depend upon an understanding of the inner workings of the child's mind.

School authorities, recognizing this principle, are coming to insist more and more that psychology, taught from the dynamic point of view, be included in the curriculum of prospective teachers. This is not sufficient. A more highly technically trained teacher—the visiting teacher—has been added, and with gratifying results, to the faculty of many elementary schools. Perhaps it is owing to the advanced professional training demanded of teachers that the school has taken over (if not usurped) many of the functions of the home that should be reserved to the parents—a fact frequently lamented by writers on the philosophy of education. But this is a necessary evil and will remain such until parents begin to take an intelligent interest in the mental problems of childhood.

"The Problem Child in School" is a neat, attractive volume, consisting for the most part of case studies made by visiting teachers. While it does not pretend to be a treatise on the psychology of childhood, it presents to the reader a number of psychological problems of children, as encountered in actual life by the visiting teacher. The successful solution that was found for many of these problems is described in simple terms but nevertheless on sound psychological principles. The author has carefully avoided abstract discussions, and, by restricting herself to concrete illustrations, has produced a volume that should be easy reading to the layman unversed in the technical terms of psychology.

Parents may read this book with great profit. While it cannot take the place of a psychological treatise on mental mechanisms, indispensable to the social service worker and the visiting teacher, the novice in these professions will nevertheless derive much benefit from its perusal. It affords many valuable suggestions for practical application of psychological principles.

The book gives an insight into the methods that are being employed more and more every day in the treatment of behavior problems of the child in school, and can be recommended also to teachers engaged in classroom work, diocesan school superintendents and other school officials whose duties bring them into contact with refractory children.

J. ALBERT HALDI.

News-Writing for High Schools, by Leo A. Borah, instructor in journalism in the School of Journalism of the University of Washington. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1925. Pp. 265. Price, \$1.40.

If a teacher is convinced that the school newspaper as an educational project is so firmly established that its place in the program of every live school is beyond question and its continuance beyond doubt, and if he is equally certain that English composition in its essentials of accuracy, forcefulness, vividness, and mechanical correctness can be taught more effectively through the natural situation of news-gathering and news-writing than through artificial processes, entirely lacking in self-motivation or social purpose, such a teacher will welcome a text which combines approved theory with systematized and directed practice. "News-Writing for High Schools," by Leo A. Borah, offers this desirable combination.

The author, who is a newspaper man of experience as well as a teacher of high-school English and college journalism, disclaims the intention either of providing a guide to professional journalists or of preparing high school students for the profession. Standard newspaper usage, however, is followed in the presentation of principles.

The text is divided into two parts: the first, which may be covered in one semester, is devoted to the news story, and the second, which is designed to serve as a manual for advanced students, discusses the practical problems of the high school paper. All exercises and lessons have been tested by classroom use.

In the chapter on newspaper ethics, which includes a list of questions to ask in studying newspapers, the author aims to accomplish the further purpose of "teaching the student to read newspapers intelligently and to discriminate between the good and the bad."

Make-up problems, together with their solution in suitable head-line schedules, illustrated by plates, are treated in a manner most helpful to the supervisor of a school paper.

SISTER M. CATHERINE (Ursuline).

A Primer of Medieval Latin, by Professor Chas. H. Beeson.
Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1925. Pp. 389.

The title of the present volume may be misleading. It is a primer only in the sense that, while it presupposes a knowledge of Classical Latin, it does not presume any acquaintance with the peculiarities of Medieval Latin.

In December, 1921, a group of medievalists, meeting in Baltimore, discussed the possibilities for Medieval Latin studies in this country. It was felt that the beginning of such a movement must come from within the colleges and universities, and that the very first need was an anthology for an introductory course in this period of the Latin language. Such a work should obviously be prepared by a recognized scholar in this field and Professor Beeson was chosen for the task.

Medievalists have made no mistake in selecting Professor Beeson as the author of their official anthology. In fact the present volume may be taken as a model for school and college texts of non-classical Latin. Some time ago I had occasion to review an anthology of patristic Latin which contained all too little worthy of commendation. The present volume is the very antithesis of that in every respect. Its notes very properly consist, for the most part, of important facts about vocabulary, orthography, forms, syntax, and meter. Such other facts as are necessary for the understanding of the text are also included, but Professor Beeson has not lost sight of the fact that an understanding of the language is the all important thing for an understanding of the thought.

The selections have been made with three classes of readers in mind: the classical student who is interested in the survival of the classical tradition in the Middle Ages; the student of the medieval literatures; and the student of medieval thought and culture. The following statement by the author, a professor in the University of Chicago, should interest especially some of our own pedantic classicists. "The common view that Medieval Latin is a corruption of classical Latin is as false as the view

that medieval literature is a corruption of the classical literature. It rests on the assumptions that Medieval Latin is a dead language and that the name is as definite a term as classical Latin. On the contrary, Medieval Latin has all the colors of a spectrum grating, one style imperceptibly shading off into another, but the extremes are farther apart than the language of Plautus and of the writers of the Augustan History. This is not surprising when one considers the long period of its development and the constant interplay of contending forces—classical Latin, ecclesiastical Latin, and the vernaculars."

Of certain selections included in his anthology Professor Beeson says: "It is perhaps needless to say that the selections have been made without bias; criticism of the Church has been included for the same reason as has criticism of woman—no survey of Medieval literature would be complete without them; it will be observed that the critics are themselves churchmen."

The author, while acknowledging certain useful purposes for anthologies, is very frank in saying that he doubts whether the study of Medieval Latin can best be promoted by such a form of text-book. What is most needed, he says, is a series of inexpensive texts, based on good mss., with a brief introduction, a select critical apparatus, a few notes, and a glossary. The same, in truth, may be said of patristic literature.

In conclusion, we heartily recommend Professor Beeson's work as a text-book for college classes, which would aim to give the student an introduction to the language and literature of Medieval Latin. The Latin text is the best available throughout; misprints are almost nil; and the notes are brief but quite adequate. From the nature of Professor Beeson's notes, which always set off the peculiarities of Medieval Latin with a classical background, the student's knowledge of classical Latin will be sharpened rather than obscured.

ROY J. DEFERRARI.

Books Received

Educational

Blackhurst, J. Herbert: *Directed Observation and Supervised Teaching*. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. xii+420.

Burt, Cyril: *The Young Delinquent*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1925. Pp. xxviii+619.

Conover, Milton: *Working Manual of Civics* (The Project Method applied to socialized recitation). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1925. Pp. vii+88. Price, \$0.75.

Franciscan Education Conference: *Report of the Seventh Annual Meeting*. Cincinnati, Ohio, June 26, 27, 28, 1925. Office of the Secretary, Capuchin College, Brookland, D. C. Pp. 298.

Hannan, Rev. Jerome D., D.D.: *Teacher Tells a Story* (Book One). New York: Benziger Brothers, 1925. Pp. 275. Price, \$2.00.

Hartman, Gertrude: *The Child and His School*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1922. Pp. 248. Price, \$2.00.

Hillegas, Milo B., Ph.D.; Peabody, Mary Gertrude; Baker, Ida M.: *Horace Man Supplementary Arithmetic* (diagnostic and corrective). Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1925. Pp. 156.

Hillegas, Milo B., Ph.D.: *Teaching Number Fundamentals* (to accompany the Horace Man Supplementary Arithmetic). Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1925. Pp. 98.

Kitson, Harry Dexter: *The Psychology of Vocational Adjustment*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1925. Pp. 273.

Parker, Samuel Chester; Temple, Alice: *Unified Kindergarten and First-Grade Teaching*. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1924. Pp. xv+600. Price, \$2.20.

Wood, Thomas D., M.D.; Rowell, Hugh Grant: *Health Through Prevention and Control of Diseases*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1925. Pp. 122. Price, \$1.00.

Textbooks

Baker, George Pierce; Huntington, Henry Barrett: *The Principles of Argumentation* (New Edition). Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. xiv+616.

Brieus, Eugene: *Les Americans Chez Nous* (Foster, Irving Lysander, Editor). Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. xx+169. Price, \$0.80.

Burleson, David Sinclair: *Applied English Grammar*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1925. Pp. ix+381. Price, \$0.92.

Caesar, C. Julius: *The Commentaries on the Civic War* (Moberly, Charles E., M.A., Editor). New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1925. Pp. xviii+275. Price, \$1.75.

- Cunliffe, J. W., D.Litt.; Lomer, Gerhard R.: *Writing of Today* (4th and revised edition). New York: The Century Co. Pp. xi+302.
- Darrow, Floyd L.: *Thinkers and Doers*. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1925. Pp. vi+378.
- Daudet, Alphonse: *Le Petit Chose* (Barney, Winfield S., Ph.D., Editor). Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1925. Pp. xii+186. Price, \$0.80.
- Edgerton, Edward I. B.S.; Carpenter, Perry A., Ph.B.: *Advanced Algebra*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1925. Pp. vi+377. Price, \$1.40.
- Espinosa, Aurelio M., Ph.D.: *Cuentos, Romances, Y Cantares*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1925. Pp. viii+129. Price, \$0.80.
- Hannan, Rev. Jerome D., D.D.: *Religion Hour* (Book One). New York: Benziger Brothers, 1925. Pp. 64. Price, \$0.21.
- Harrington, Karl Pomeroy: *Mediaeval Latin*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1925. Pp. xxiv+698. Price, \$2.98.
- Hilkene, Ruth Miller; Gugle, Marie: *Willie Fox's Diary*. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. 125. Price, \$0.72.
- Kelly, Rev. William R.: *The Mass for Children*. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1925. Pp. 64. Price, \$0.21.
- Livy, Books XXIX and XXX (*The Close of the Second Punic War*). Butler, H. E., Editor. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1925. Pp. 182. Price, \$0.90.
- Long, William J.: *Outlines of English Literature (with Readings)*. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. 441. Price, \$1.80.
- MacGill, C. E.: *This Country of Mine* (A Book for Young Americans). Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1925. Pp. 330. Price, \$1.30.
- Moliere: *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*. Oliver, Thomas Edward, Editor. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. xxxv+188. Price, \$0.64.
- Moreno-Lacalle, J.: *Spanish Idioms and Phrases*. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. 90. Price, \$0.84.